DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 243 319 FL 014 342

TITLE	A Handbook for Teaching Portuguese-Speaking Students.
INSTITUTION	California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	83
NOTE	117p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Publications Sales, California State Department of Education, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802 ($4.50, plus sales tax for California residents).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055) -- Historical Materials (060) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Bibliographies; *Bilingual Education; *Bilingual Students; Community Organizations; *Curriculum Development; Dialects; Educational Attitudes; *Educational Strategies; English (Second Language); Enrollment Rate; Ethnicity; Immigrants; Language Attitudes; Language Maintenance; Language Usage; *Limited English Speaking; *Portuguese; Reading Instruction; School Districts; Second Language Instruction; Sociocultural Patterns; Statewide Planning
IDENTIFIERS	*California

ABSTRACT

The handbook, intended to assist California school personnel in understanding the Portuguese language minority group, is designed for use by bilingual education specialists, administrators, and other teachers. An introductory section presents several vignettes of language situations in the schools. Two subsequent chapters outline general background information concerning the Portuguese language group. The first describes two immigration periods, immigration patterns, and education in Portuguese-speaking countries. The second outlines historical and sociocultural factors of this group, including attitudes toward education and language use and skills, both English and Portuguese. Another chapter examines various linguistic characteristics of the Portuguese language, especially communication and dialect patterns. A concluding chapter recommends instructional and curricular strategies for both Portuguese and English language development in this group. Appendices include a glossary, bibliography, ranking of California school districts' Portuguese limited-English-proficient enrollments, a guide to educational resources, a list of community organizations and media services, and charts of Portuguese and English consonant and vowel systems. (MSE)

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A Handbook for Teaching Portuguese-Speaking Students

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CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Bill Honig—Superintendent of Public Instruction
Sacramento, 1983

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A Handbook for Teaching

Portuguese-Speaking Students

FL014342

Developed by the
Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education
California State Department of Education

Publishing Information

This handbook was funded in part with funds from the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs and the Office of Equal Educational Opportunity Programs, U.S. Department of Education. The opinions expressed herein do not, however, necessarily reflect the position or policy of the U.S. Department of Education, and no official endorsement by the U.S. Department of Education should be inferred.

The document was developed by the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education. The final draft of the manuscript was edited by Mirko Strazicich of the Bureau of Publications, working in cooperation with David P. Dolson of the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education. The handbook was prepared for photo-offset production by the staff of the Bureau of Publications, with artwork by Cheryl Shawver McDonald. The document was published by the Department; printed by the Office of State Printing; and distributed under the provisions of the Library Distribution Act and *Government Code* Section 11096.

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A list of other publications available from the Department of Education is shown on page 102.

Contents

	Page
Foreword	vii
Preface	ix
Acknowledgments	xiii
Note to Readers	xv
Introduction	1
"Historia No. 1"	1
"Historia No. 2"	2
"Historia No. 3"	3
"Conhecer a Sua Historia"	4
Chapter I. Overview of the Portuguese Language Group	6
Early Immigration (1780—1950)	6
Recent Immigration (1951—1978)	8
Reasons for Immigration to the United States	13
Education in Portuguese-Speaking Countries	14
Chapter II. Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning Portuguese-Speaking Peoples	18
Factors in Portuguese-Speaking Countries	18
Attitudes Toward Education	21
Attitudes Toward Reading and Writing Skills	22
Attitudes Toward Oral Skills	24
Study of English in Portuguese-Speaking Countries	25
Use of English in Portugal	26
Factors in the United States	26
Maintenance of the Native Language	29
Use of the Portuguese Language in California	32
Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of the Portuguese Language	36
Location of Portuguese Speakers	36
Communication Between Different Speakers	38
Competing Dialects or Languages	41
Implications of the Language Variations	41
Ways in Which Portuguese Differs from English	46
Characteristics of the Writing System	50
Cultural Patterns in Portuguese	53

Page

Chapter IV. Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Portuguese Language Development 54

Transference of Literacy Skills 54
Effects of Primary-Language Literacy on Achievement ... 56
Readiness Skills for Learning to Read Portuguese 57
Instruction in Reading Portuguese 58
Instruction in Writing Portuguese 59
Introduction of Oral English Instruction 60
Introduction of Formal Reading Instruction 63
Development of Proficiency in Portuguese 66
Acquisition of Fluency in English 69
Summary 70

Glossary 72

Bibliography 75

Appendix A. Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Portuguese 83

Appendix B. Educational Resources 85

Appendix C. Community Organizations and Media Services 94

Appendix D. Linguistic Systems 100

List of Tables, Figures, and Maps

Table		*Page*
1	Immigration into the United States from Portugal, by Decade, 1820—1950	7
2	Immigration into the United States from Portugal and Brazil, 1951—1978	8
3	Portuguese Alien Address Reports, by State of Residence, 1977	9
4	School Districts Reporting 100 or More Lusophone Students, 1980	12
5	Phases of Portuguese Immigration to the United States	15
6	Literacy Rates in Portuguese-Speaking Countries	19
7	Occupational Categories of Lusophone Immigrants	19
8	Occurrence of English Monolingualism Among Selected Language Group Members Born in the United States and Aged Fifteen or Over, 1976	29
9	Portuguese Emigrants and Country of Destination Since 1960	38
10	Luso-American Speech Modifications	41

Figure		
1	The Portuguese Alphabet and a Sample of Portuguese Writing	51

List of Maps

Azores and Madeira Islands	13
Portugal	27
The Lusophone World	37
Cape Verde Islands	40
Brazil	45

Foreword

During the 1981-82 school year, more than 7,000 students in California were reported to be using Portuguese as their primary home language. And of that number, approximately 2,500 were identified as limited-English proficient (LEP). This publication, *A Handbook for Teaching Portuguese-Speaking Students,* was developed to help the Portuguese-American LEP students make the best use of the educational opportunities that our schools provide.

What is especially important for LEP students is to have teachers and administrators in their schools who know the students' language and cultural background. This knowledge, research has shown, has a significant influence on the performance of LEP students. With the information provided in this handbook, school district personnel should be able to design and implement effective instructional programs that address the specific needs of Portuguese-American LEP students.

Included in the handbook is information of the unique historical, sociocultural, and linguistic characteristics of Portuguese-speaking students. It also provides information about educational resources, such as community organizations, public agencies, and classroom instructional materials. We in the Department are pleased to be involved in the development of this handbook. We believe that it and those handbooks for other language groups will make an important contribution to the improvement of educational services for language minority students.

Bill Honig

Superintendent of Public Instruction

Preface

This handbook was developed as part of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project in the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education. Designed to assist school districts in providing effective bilingual education services to language minority students, the project's team identified as its first major activity the development of handbooks for selected Asian and minority language groups.

The purpose of the handbooks is to assist school personnel in understanding selected Asian and minority language groups. The handbooks have been designed for use by bilingual education specialists as well as administrators and teachers who have more general responsibilities for the education of students.

Chapters I and II of this handbook address general background factors regarding the Portuguese language group: immigration history, educational background, and sociocultural factors. Chapters III and IV contain specific information regarding the Portuguese language and appropriate program offerings that will promote the academic achievement of Portuguese-speaking students.

This handbook is complemented by another publication developed by the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education: *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework*,[1] which provides extensive information regarding bilingual education theory and practice. It also outlines the basic principles underlying successful bilingual education programs and suggests a variety of implementation strategies.

The analyses and illustrations in the *Theoretical Framework* are not specific to particular language groups. Rather, the *Theoretical Framework* provides a way of conceptualizing and organizing appropriate program services based on program goals, available resources, community background factors, and student characteristics.

This handbook and others developed as part of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project are designed to assist school district personnel in better understanding specific Asian and minority language group communities and individual students who come from

[1]Information regarding this publication is available from the Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90032.

those communities. We believe that by using this handbook in conjunction with the *Theoretical Framework*, school personnel should be able to develop program services that are appropriately suited to the needs of individual Portuguese-speaking students and that are consistent with California's bilingual education law.

During the past three years, California has experienced a dramatic increase in the number of immigrants from Asia and other parts of the world. For example, the 1982 Language Census indicated that Vietnamese students who were of limited-English proficiency (LEP) increased 273 percent from 1979, from 7,426 to 27,733. Cantonese-speaking LEP students increased from 7,219 in 1979 to 16,096 in 1982, a 123 percent increase. On the basis of the 1982 Language Census, LEP students from Asian and other minority language groups (excluding Spanish-speaking students) total approximately 89,000 (21 percent) of the 431,443 LEP students identified in California. After Spanish and the major Asian languages, Portuguese is the next largest language group in California.

The Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team of the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education began development of this handbook in January, 1980. It went through several drafts and was reviewed by teachers, linguists, and members of the language group community before publication. Every effort has been made to create a handbook that would be useful to instructors of bilingual students and to teachers and administrators holding other responsibilities for the education of Asian and minority groups.

An ad hoc committee representing 13 different language groups identified five key areas where information would be useful to school districts. Each of the handbooks has been developed along these areas. The first two chapters of the handbook are designed to provide a general understanding of the social and educational background of the language group and of its history of immigration to the United States. The final two chapters on linguistics and program development are designed for bilingual educators who are developing appropriate curriculum and instruction for language minority students. The appendixes provide a variety of available resources for the education of students of the language group.

In spite of extensive work done by many individuals, this handbook should be regarded as a first edition. As time and resources permit, efforts will be made to refine it. It is difficult in one volume to depict the uniqueness and heterogeneity that characterize the language group. The reader should recognize that any language group is complex and diverse, with individual members and generations having a variety of needs and characteristics based on different experiences in America and in their native countries.

This handbook has been developed in coordination with several other documents published by the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education. As already stated, the research and evaluation information presented in the *Theoretical Framework* forms the basis for the theoretical and philosophical as well as the pedagogical positions taken in the Asian and minority language handbooks.

This handbook represents an initial attempt to describe generally the needs and characteristics of the language minority groups. Much more research and developmental work needs to be done by all who are responsible for ensuring the successful adjustment to America by minority language groups.

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Acknowledgments

The California State Department of Education wishes to recognize the many individuals who assisted in completing this handbook. The facilitator, António Borba, Livingston Union Elementary School District, worked closely with the project team in keeping the handbook on schedule and in making many adjustments to the preliminary drafts. The language group representatives, António Andrade, California State University, Hayward, and Vamberto A. Freitas, ABC Unified School District, provided valuable research and wrote parts of the handbook. Two language specialists, Natália Almeida and Maria Oliveira, San Jose Unified School District, and the content reviewer, Virginia da Mota, Rhode Island State Department of Education, helped to ensure the accuracy and completeness of the handbook. The Portuguese Cultural and Historical Society, represented by Joe D'Alessandro and Gregg Campbell, also provided valuable input. Many interested members of the Portuguese-speaking community and others made suggestions for improving each draft.

We also recognize the Asian and Minority Language Group Project Team of the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education—David P. Dolson, Chong K. Park, and Van Le—who saw the need for the handbooks, organized an effective mechanism for developing them, and provided guidance during the writing of each draft. The project was managed by Tomas Lopez, former Assistant Chief, Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education. The high expectations and perseverance of members of the team were critical to the completion of the handbooks. The team in particular recognizes David P. Dolson whose contributions to the Portuguese handbook were key to its eventual publication.

The Department acknowledges the following specialists who gave valuable assistance during the initial stages of the project: Eleanor W. Thonis, Wheatland Elementary School District; Benjamin K. T'sou, University of Hong Kong; and Lily Wong-Fillmore, University of California, Berkeley.

We also want to thank Mary G. McDonald, former Director of the BABEL LAU Center in Oakland, and Alberto M. Ochoa, Director of the NOD-LAU Center in San Diego, for their support in the initial development of the Asian and Minority Language Group Project and in providing staff assistance to selected teams.

The Department is grateful to Mary Spencer, Americas Behavioral Research Corporation, San Francisco, and Barbara Merino, University of California, Davis, for their untiring efforts in working on the final draft.

Although many individuals contributed to each handbook, final responsibility for the handbook rests with the Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, California State Department of Education.

DANIEL D. HOLT
Asian and Minority Language Group
Project Team Leader

Note to Readers

This handbook is designed for use by administrators, teachers, and other instructional personnel. The contents of the handbook may help the user in many different ways.

Chapter I. Overview of the Language Group

Material in Chapter I should help school personnel to:

1. Develop effective curricular and instructional approaches by understanding how educators in the native country deal with literacy and language arts.
2. Improve English instruction by understanding what contact, if any, students have had with English in the native country.
3. Promote Portuguese language development by knowing how the Portuguese language is reinforced in the home and community in California.
4. Improve Portuguese language instruction in the United States by knowing how the Portuguese language is taught in the native country.

Chapter II. Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning Portuguese-Speaking Peoples

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Develop effective curricular and instructional approaches by understanding how educators in the native country deal with literacy and language arts.
2. Improve English instruction by understanding what contact, if any, students have had with English in the native country.
3. Promote Portuguese language development by knowing how the Portuguese language is reinforced in the home and community in California.
4. Improve academic performance by understanding the role of the Portuguese language in formal schooling contexts.

Chapter III. Linguistic Characteristics of the Portuguese Language

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Create Portuguese language development activities by knowing more about the linguistic aspects of the language.

2. Improve English language instruction by understanding some of the similarities and differences between English and the Portuguese language.

Chapter IV. Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Portuguese Language Development

Material in this chapter should help school personnel to:

1. Improve Portuguese language and English instruction by better understanding the theoretical bases for bilingual instruction.
2. Improve Portuguese language and English instruction by realizing how to manage the student's contact in the United States with both languages in the school and community.
3. Improve academic performance by understanding the role of the Portuguese language in formal schooling contexts.

Glossary, Bibliography, and Appendixes

The material in the glossary, bibliography, and appendixes should help the school staff to:

1. Select materials necessary for language arts and other curricular areas.
2. Develop constructive relationships with community organizations and media services related to curriculum and instruction.
3. Create liaison with other districts in California by knowing where students of the Portuguese language group are concentrated.
4. Use terms that are associated with the Portuguese language group and educational services to support it.

Introduction

Whenever people of different ethnic and language backgrounds come into contact, they tend to have superficial if not stereotypic views of each other. The following stories illustrate that point as related to Portuguese-Americans:

"Historia No. 1"

When first assigned to Cabrillo Elementary School, the new principal was told by the district office that it was basically a "WASP" school. She had no reason to doubt this for, after all, the school was located in an average neighborhood in a suburban community between Fremont and San Jose, California. However, after having been at the school for a few months, the principal began to detect the presence of a previously unnoticed ethnic community.

For instance, there was the time the principal made a phone call to the Silva family only to realize that none of the relatives could speak English. They appeared to be Spanish-speaking. Later, when several new children were enrolled in the school, the secretary pointed out that these families were from the Azores. The principal began to make connections when one Sunday the main street was closed because of a religious festival and parade. The police officer said it was a "Portugee Picnic." For months the principal had driven by several large meeting halls identified only by small signs which contained undecipherable acronyms such as IDES or SPRSI[1]. Now she noticed that the parade route extended from the Catholic church to one of these halls.

The pieces of the puzzle began to fit together the day the principal received a phone call from Joe Azevedo, president of a local Luso-American organization. Mr. Azevedo invited the principal to give a talk at the next general meeting, to be held at the Cabrillo Civic Club. Immediately, the principal looked in the dictionary for the term *Luso-American* but could not find it. Once at the meeting, the principal noticed that everything was conducted quite formally, even though before and after each person spoke, a lot of boisterous conversation and backslapping took place among persons in the audience.

[1]IDES—Irmandade do Divino Espírito Santo (Brotherhood of the Divine Holy Ghost); SPRSI—Sociedade Portuguesa Rainha Santa Isabel (Portuguese Society of St. Elizabeth).

The principal also noticed that a lot of conversations were in a language other than English, maybe Spanish from Spain or even Italian or French. Noticing the principal's discomfort, the president struck up a conversation—one that proved to be most enlightening for the new principal. During the conversation Mr. Azevedo made the following comments:

> Have you ever been to a Portuguese organization meeting before? There are a lot of Portuguese around here, sure. They come from the Azores Islands mostly. Started coming around 1910 and have been coming ever since. Just last week we got a family from Pico and another from Angola. They're working at the dairies. Do you know Mary Costa well? She's the student teacher at Cabrillo. By the way, the committee was wondering if Mary might stay on at the school when she finishes her student teaching. You know, there are a lot of Portuguese kids at that school. It would sure help to have someone who speaks the language.

Now the principal knew. The community had a large number of Luso- or Portuguese-Americans. Mostly, they lived in quiet, middle class neighborhoods or in the rural areas. They had their organizations and churches, and now some of them demonstrated an interest in the school. But how could the principal find out more about these people, especially since they seemed so reserved with outsiders? After many frustrating attempts the principal did find some written material on Portugal and the Azores, but relatively little had been written on the Portuguese in California, at least in the recent period. The best source of information seemed to be to talk to people, but of course this led to about as many points of view as the number of Luso-Americans interviewed. The principal wanted to do something, but there did not seem to be any way of obtaining reliable and accurate information about Portuguese-Americans.

"Historia No. 2"

Fátima Lopes entered school speaking only Portuguese. Although born in the United States, her parents had recently emigrated from Madeira and had been living on a large dairy farm in the Central Valley. Although normal in intelligence, by the third grade Fátima had fallen behind her classmates in schoolwork.

At first, Fátima depended almost entirely on other Portuguese-speaking students to find out what was going on in the classroom. For several years she visited Mrs. Vasquez each day for an English-as-a-second-language (ESL) class. Even though Mrs. Vasquez was Spanish-speaking, they had trouble understanding each other. In addition, Fátima also saw the speech therapist twice a week; however, Fátima got bored speaking into mirrors and doing a variety of other speech exercises. As Fátima learned more and more English, she was able to participate in regular classroom activities. Yet, she never

seemed to do as well as most of the other children. Her teacher often wrote notes to her parents, remarking that Fátima was a "slow" learner.

Despite her language and academic problems, despite her own shyness, and despite misunderstandings at home, Fátima liked school. She loved to play with the other children and listen to the teacher tell stories. Once in a while the things the teacher said were different from those she heard at home. For instance, when the class studied the history of California, all of the students were asked to draw a picture of the "Spanish" explorer Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo. Another time, when the class was talking about immigrants to the United States, the teacher said that people came to this country to escape cruel governments and religious persecution. Fátima could not remember her parents talking about such things.

Some teachers asked Fátima to translate for other children. Sometimes the other children spoke Portuguese, but sometimes they spoke Spanish. Even though Fátima's parents told her that Spanish is a different language, some of the Luso-American students said that people from the Azores only know how to talk "hick" Portuguese. Once, when asked to translate for some Spanish-speaking students, Fátima told the staff member that she was Portuguese. The response was, "But you don't look Portuguese!"

The most serious problem that Fátima ever had in school was the time she was sent to the principal's office for talking and giggling with other girls in the class after being told to be quiet several times. Her parents were called to the school. The principal explained that he was shocked at Fátima's behavior because, after all, he never had any trouble with his "Portuguese kids." That night at home, Fátima received a good spanking.

By the time Fátima reached the eighth grade, she was almost two years behind in school. At church on Sunday the other girls would tell her not to worry. The advice given was: "Go to high school for a year or so and then get a job at Souza's dairy. Then you will meet your *namorado* and get married. Who needs all this school stuff anyway?"

"Historia No. 3"

Maria and Alberto Silveira were so happy to be able to send their son, Manuel, to public school in the United States. Such an opportunity would not have been available to them in their small village near Angra do Heroísmo on Terceira Island in the Azores. Manuelinho would certainly have many opportunities in this new country.

Each day Maria would see that Manuel was clean and neat before leaving for school. Her only instruction would be "Comporta-te bem, eh" (behave yourself).

After a few years Manuel's parents noticed two things. Manuel was doing fairly well but certainly below average in school; and, although Maria and Alberto spoke only Portuguese at home, Manuel began to speak English almost exclusively. Somehow, the ties between the parents and their child did not seem as strong as before.

When Maria and Alberto discussed this problem, they would always reach the same conclusion: "The teachers know best. Manuel has to learn English and do well in school. We will try to handle the Portuguese part at home. After all, we don't want him to lose his language and culture." When she talked with her Portuguese neighbors, Maria found that the problem was common. Almost all of the parents complained that their children just did not behave in the same ways anymore.

Despite their respect for the school authorities, Maria and Alberto were always apprehensive about visiting the school. It was difficult to talk in English with the teachers. The parents thought, "What if they say something we can't understand?" Even more frightening, "What if they criticize us as parents or what if they think we are ungrateful immigrants?"

When Manuel reached high school, the situation became clearer. After Alberto's years of hard work at the Sacramento railroad yard, the family had saved a substantial amount of money and now owned its own home. "Hard work certainly pays off in America. Instead of continuing in school, Manuel could get a job. Mr. Harrison at the railroad yard said that he was always looking for good Portuguese workers. They're not lazy like some others. Why, a few fellows from the Azores and Cape Verde work there and make good money, and they don't even speak English."

"School is a good opportunity," thought Maria, and Alberto, "but after all, hard work gives even better payoffs. Besides, school is too much trouble and we really don't understand how to make it work for us. We could fail. But we know we won't fail at work. We are proud Portuguese."

"Conhecer a Sua Historia"

Of course, the three accounts presented above could be classified as folk stories. Unfortunately, for the most part, educators, parents, and community members have often relied solely on intuition and common sense to formulate solutions for difficult educational problems. While common sense is a very important asset, professional experience and empirical evidence are required to design and implement sound educational programs. Outsiders who study the Portuguese-speaking community are unlikely to be able to interpret many of their observations accurately. On the other hand, Luso-Americans themselves, clouded by either modesty or ethnic pride, may be unable to

make objective judgments about their own group. Both groups need access to a source of accurate information regarding appropriate educational practices for Portuguese-speaking children. This handbook is meant to fulfill that need.

School district personnel, in cooperation with parents and community members, can improve educational opportunities for Portuguese-speaking students. This publication is designed to aid school administrators and teachers in the planning and implementation of bilingual education opportunities. The handbook focuses on the importance of cultural and linguistic factors in promoting the general school achievement of Luso-American students. The handbook contains specific information on immigration patterns, cultural traditions, attitudes toward education, linguistic characteristics, and suggested instructional activities. The publication should be useful to persons who are not familiar with the Portuguese-speaking community by providing an overview of this group. The handbook will also be of much value to Luso-American educators as a source of well-organized accurate information that can be used when making presentations to others.

Although every effort has been made to present an authentic and accurate picture of the Luso-American community in the United States in general, and California in particular, the reader should be aware that there is much variation among the members of any racial, ethnic, or language minority group. This diversity also exists in the Portuguese-American community. The authors of this handbook have made every attempt to describe these variations while at the same time identifying some of the most important and characteristic group patterns.

Basically, only important issues relating to the education of Luso-American children have been discussed in detail. For a general overview of Luso-American history and culture, the reader sould refer to the *Harvard Encyclopedia of American Ethnic Groups* (1980).

This handbook was developed, for the most part, by four Luso-American educators, two immigrants and two U.S. born, all of Azorean ancestry. They were assisted by other Portuguese-speaking people from Portugal, Brazil, Madeira, and Cape Verde and by both minority and majority American educators. Collectively, this group has developed a handbook which promotes optimal educational opportunities for Luso-American children.

Chapter I

Overview of the Portuguese Language Group

The Portuguese presence on the Pacific Coast of the United States dates back to the very beginnings of recorded history of what today is the state of California. As far as the historical record is concerned, the first European who saw California was João Rodrigues Cabrilho, a Portuguese navigator in the service of Spain. On September 28, 1542, Cabrilho's fleet entered San Diego Bay. This historic event has become a source of much pride among Luso-Americans throughout the state. Every year the city of San Diego, in cooperation with the National Parks and Monuments Service and the governments of Portugal, Spain, and Mexico, sponsors a festival to commemorate Cabrilho's discovery.

Early Immigration (1780—1950)

Immigration reports have been kept by the U.S. government since 1820, when 35 Portuguese immigrated to the United States (*1977 Annual Report,* 1978).[1] Early immigrants tended to settle mainly in New England and California. All persons possessing Portuguese passports were classified as having Portugal as their country of origin. Thus, it is almost impossible to determine the relative numbers of immigrants from specific Portuguese territories. Nevertheless, a recent survey (Williams, 1980) and a noted historian (Rogers, 1979) have indicated that the majority of immigrants holding Portuguese passports were and continue to be from the Azores Islands. The percentage of Azoreans is estimated to be at least 57 percent and as high as 80 percent of all Portuguese-speaking persons in the United States (Cabral, 1980).

From 1820 to 1900 there was a steady increase in Portuguese immigration to the United States. Immigration peaked in the period from 1900 to 1920. The number of immigrants decreased gradually during the 1920s, then more drastically in the period between 1930 and 1950. Portuguese immigration data for the early immigration period between 1820 and 1950 are shown in Table 1. Similar information for Brazil is not available for this period; however, the number of Brazilian immigrants during these years is estimated to be extremely small.

No records exist for the major Portuguese settlements in California before 1849. The first settlers were probably Azorean whalers who

[1]For the complete reference for this document and all others cited in parentheses, see the bibliography on page 75.

may have jumped ship as early as 1780 (Vaz, 1965). The California Gold Rush and the whaling industry brought many of the early Portuguese to the Golden State. Census records show substantial numbers of Portuguese families in the San Leandro, Sacramento, and San Luis Obispo areas as early as 1852 (Galloway, 1974; Vaz, 1965). Although many of the immigrants arrived in California directly from the Azores or Portugal, many others came from Portuguese communities previously established in New England.

Traces of the early Portuguese presence in California can still be found in such places as Portuguese Bend, Half Moon Bay, and Monterey, where whaling stations were founded (Vaz, 1965). At the height of the whaling activity, around the 1860s, there existed a chain of Portuguese whaling stations stretching from Baja California in the south to Crescent City in the north. After the early 1870s, whaling began to decline, and many of the Portuguese involved in whaling branched into other enterprises such as the tuna and dairy industries (Graves, 1974).

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, dairying became the main Portuguese economic activity in California. Records from about 1880 indicate that approximately 80 Portuguese-owned dairies were located in the Sausalito area of Marin County alone (Vaz, 1965). The establishment of dairies and their accompanying Portuguese

Tabie 1

Immigration into the United States from Portugal, by Decade, 1820—1950

Years	*Number of immigrants (in thousands)*
1820—1830	0.2
1831—1840	0.8
1841—1850	0.5
1851—1860	1.0
1861—1870	2.6
1871—1880	14.0
1881—1890	17.0
1891—1900	27.5
1901—1910	69.1
1911—1920	89.7
1921—1930	30.0
1931—1940	3.3
1941—1950	7.4
	TOTAL 263.1

Source: *1977 Annual Report,* 1978, p. 65.

communities and neighborhoods spread throughout California, with substantial concentrations in the San Francisco Bay Area, the Sacramento and San Joaquin valleys, and in southern California in the Artesia-Cerritos, Chino, and Corona-Norco areas.

Recent Immigration (1951—1978)

Since 1960 more than 10 percent of the population of Portugal has emigrated to foreign lands. In most cases, Portuguese immigrants have relocated in industrialized countries. According to the Portuguese government, France, Canada, Germany, Brazil, Venezuela, and the United States have collectively received almost one million Portuguese immigrants (*Emigrantes Portugueses,* 1982).

Unlike the 1800s and early 1900s, immigration from Portugal since 1951 and from Brazil since 1968 has been carefully documented. In the period from 1951 to 1979, more than 184,000 Portuguese and 16,500 Brazilians entered the United States with permanent resident status. Immigration data for both countries are shown in Table 2.

According to the U.S. Department of Justice, the Portuguese were among the top ten national origin groups in 1978. On the basis of alien address reports, Portuguese ranked tenth in number of foreign nationals in the United States. Brazilians and Portuguese-speaking

Table 2

Immigration into the United States from Portugal and Brazil, 1951—1978 (in thousands)

Years	*Portugal*	*Brazil*
1951—1960	19.5	Not available
1961—1967	34.1	Not available
1968	12.2	2.5
1969	16.5	1.7
1970	13.2	1.9
1971	11.7	1.4
1972	10.3	1.1
1973	10.8	1.2
1974	11.3	1.1
1975	11.8	1.1
1976	10.5	1.0
1977	12.0	1.7
1978	10.4	1.9
TOTALS	184.3	16.6

Source: *1977 Annual Report,* 1978, pp. 65—68.

immigrants from recently independent colonies such as Angola and Mozambique were not included. The major national origin immigrant groups in the United States, by rank order, are as follows:

1. Mexican
2. Cuban
3. Canadian
4. British
5. Filipino
6. Italian
7. German
8. Korean
9. Chinese
10. **Portuguese**

Source: *1977 Annual Report,* 1978, p. 29.

To determine the place of residence of Portuguese-speaking persons within the United States is somewhat difficult. The U.S. Department of Justice has monitored the settlement patterns of legal aliens in recent years; however, no records are available on earlier immigrants. Also, monitoring of resident aliens does not account for (1) naturalized citizens; (2) illegal immigrants; and (3) U.S.-born Portuguese-speaking individuals. The number of Portuguese immigrants residing in California and other states such as Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and New Jersey can be determined from the most recent alien address survey (*1977 Annual Report,* 1978). The settlement patterns for Portuguese immigrants by state of residence are illustrated in Table 3.

Clearly then, on the basis of recent immigration reports, most Portuguese-speaking persons are concentrated in three locations. The largest concentration is in New England, with the states of Massachu-

Table 3

Portuguese Alien Address Reports, by State of Residence, 1977

State	*Number of Portuguese (in thousands)*	*Percent of U.S. total*
California	**21.0**	**17**
Connecticut	8.3	7
Massachusetts	46.2	38
New Jersey	15.8	13
New York	7.7	6
Pennsylvania	2.0	2
Rhode Island	15.9	13
Other states	3.2	4
TOTAL U.S.	120.1	100

Source: *1977 Annual Report,* 1978, p. 51.

setts and Rhode Island accounting for approximately 51 percent of all Portuguese in the United States. Other states with significant concentrations are Connecticut, New Jersey, and New York, areas representing another 26 percent. Finally, virtually all of the Portuguese located on the West Coast are in California, accounting for 17 percent of the United States total.

In 1978 more than 10,000 Portuguese entered the United States with permanent resident status. Of these, approximately 17 percent relocated in California. Of the California immigrants, 31 percent settled in one of the 21 largest urban areas. The remaining 69 percent selected rural or semirural locations with populations of 2,500 or less. Within California the urban areas to receive the most Portuguese immigrants in rank order were: San Jose (13 percent), Fremont (7 percent), San Diego (5 percent), and San Francisco (3 percent) (*1977 Annual Report,* 1978).

A small community of approximately 4,000 Portuguese-speaking immigrants from Macao, a Portuguese territory on the southern coast of China, exists in California. Concentrated in San Francisco and Los Angeles, these Luso-Sino-Americans, or "Portuguese of the Orient" as they are commonly known, are mostly Portuguese-speaking Chinese ethnics originally from Shanghai and Hong Kong. Nevertheless, in order to maintain the Portuguese language and culture, this group has formed the União Macaense Americana (American Macao Union) with 600 members (*Harvard Encyclopedia of American Ethnic Groups,* 1980).

As mentioned previously, almost all of the reliable information on Portuguese-speaking ethnics in the United States is from immigration records. This information is limited since it does not account for U.S.-born Portuguese-speaking persons and naturalized citizens. One of the reasons more accurate information is not available regarding Portuguese-speaking ethnics is that governmental agencies, such as the Bureau of the Census, do not systematically collect data on this group. Portuguese is not an officially recognized minority group. Generally, Portuguese-speaking persons are forced to classify themselves on government documents as "Other White," "European," or, in the case of Brazilians, as "Hispanic" or "South American." Some Cape Verdeans and other nonwhite Portuguese-speaking persons often indicate "Black" or "Other Nonwhite." Additionally, Portuguese surnames are quite similar to Spanish surnames, and some Portuguese immigrants translate or otherwise adapt their names to conform to English pronunciation and spelling. Selected examples of this phenomenon are shown on the following page.

In 1977 the Office of the Lieutenant Governor conducted an extensive survey of ethnic groups in California. Results of this survey indicated that approximately 350,000 Portuguese were identified in

Common Portuguese surnames

Abreu	Cardoso	Fagundes	Luz	Pereira	Simas
Aguiar	Carvalho	Fernandes	Macedo	Pinto	Simões
Almeida	Chaves	Ferreira	Machado	Pires	Soares
Alves	Coelho	Figueiredo	Martins	Ramos	Sousa
Amaral	Correia	Fonseca	Matos	Raposo	Tavares
Andrade	Correiro	Fontes	Medeiros	Rebelo	Teixeira
Avila	Costa	Freitas	Melo	Reis	Toste
Azevedo	Cunha	Gomes	Mendes	Rocha	Vargas
Baptista	Da Costa	Gonçalves	Medina	Rodrigues	Vaz
Barros	Dias	Goulart	Mendonça	Rosa	Vicente
Betencourt	Duarte	Guimarães	Morais	Santos	Vieira
Borges	Dutra	Lima	Neves	Saraiva	Xavier
Botelho	Enos	Lopes	Nunes	Sequeira	
Brito	Escobar	Lourenço	Oliveira	Silva	
Cabral	Esteves	Luis	Pacheco	Silveira	

Common English adaptations of Portuguese surnames

Foster (Faustinho)	Martin (Martins)
Keys (Chaves)	Miller (Molinho)
King (Reis)	Oliver (Oliveira)
Lawrence (Lourenço)	Perry (Pereira)
Lewis (Luis)	Rogers (Rodrigues)

the state ("Survey of Ethnic Groups in California," 1977). A study done as part of the 1980 U.S. Census found that approximately 180,000 persons in California claimed Portuguese as their only ethnic heritage. Another indicator of the concentration of Portuguese-speaking persons in California is the annual language census conducted by all school districts in the state. During the 1981-82 school year, more than 7,400 schoolchildren were identified as having Portuguese as their home language ("DATA/BICAL Reports," 1982). This same data base also revealed school districts with major concentrations of Lusophone students. School districts in California reporting 100 or more Portuguese-speaking students are listed in Table 4.

On the basis of an extensive geographical analysis of Portuguese settlements in California, A. R. Graves concluded that (1) Portuguese-speaking persons are the most rural of all national origin groups in the state; (2) a greater percentage of Portuguese is involved in agriculture than any other language minority group; (3) the San Francisco Bay area has the largest concentration of Luso-Americans; and (4) many immigrants in the Bay Area are from Faial, Pico, Flores, and São Jorge islands in the Azores whereas most of the Portuguese in the Central Valley and in southern California are from Terceira, Sao Jorge, and Pico (Graves, 1974).

In summary, the following points have been made regarding Lusophone immigration to the United States:

1. Immigration from Portugal and her territories has been more than ten times greater than immigration from Brazil.
2. Most (57 to 80 percent) Portuguese nationals immigrating to the United States are from the Azores Islands.
3. Lusophone immigration to the United States peaked in the period 1900—1930 and then again in 1963 to the present.
4. Portuguese are currently among the top ten immigrant groups in the United States.
5. Most Portuguese-speaking persons reside in Massachusetts, California, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Connecticut in that order.
6. In California many Portuguese ethnics reside in the San Francisco Bay Area, San Jose-Santa Clara area, Sacramento and San Joaquin valleys, Artesia-Chino-Corona area, and San Diego.
7. Portuguese ethnics tend to be undercounted because Portuguese is not an officially recognized minority group, Portuguese sur-

Table 4

School Districts Reporting 100 or More Lusophone Students, 1980

School district	*Community*	*Number of students*
ABC Unified	Cerritos	243
Cabrillo Unified	Half Moon Bay	116
Ceres Unified	Ceres	100
East Side Union	San Jose	102
Elk Grove Unified	Elk Grove	100
Fremont Unified	Fremont	187
Gustine Unified	Gustine	314
Hayward Unified	Hayward	118
Kit Carson Union	Hanford	124
Los Banos Unified	Los Banos	138
Sacramento Unified	Sacramento	104
San Diego City Unified	San Diego	365
San Jose Unified	San Jose	292
San Leandro Unified	San Leandro	209
Santa Clara Unified	Santa Clara	296
Turlock Joint	Turlock	126
Visalia Unified	Visalia	154

Source: "DATA/BICAL Reports," 1982.

names are often confused with Spanish surnames, and a number of Portuguese-speaking persons translate or Anglicize their surnames.

Reasons for Immigration to the United States

Research on the motivation for immigration of Portuguese-speaking people to the United States is limited. Numerous anecdotal accounts have been given regarding the reasons for the immigration of such large numbers of Portuguese-speaking individuals. Since the majority of Lusophones in the United States immigrated from the Azores (Cabral, 1980), several examples from this particular group will be used to illustrate some of the main political, economic, and social factors related to Portuguese immigration.

The population of the Azores is estimated to be about 250,000 people. An equal number of Azoreans now reside in the United States, Canada, and Brazil. Azorean immigrants often mention one or more of the following reasons for their immigration to the United States:

1. *Poverty and isolation.* The Azores are located in the mid-Atlantic more than 840 miles (1,400 kilometres) from mainland Portugal. Most of the inhabitants are engaged in subsistence farming. The population is too great and the amount of arable land is insufficient to support the essentially agrarian populace.

2. *Climate.* The islands are struck periodically by harsh storms and damaging earthquakes. Volcanic eruptions are common.
3. *Government.* Until 1974 Portugal remained one of the most underdeveloped countries in Europe. The underdevelopment of the Azores was even worse because of their distance from Lisbon. Until recently, the Azores remained one of the most neglected regions in Portugal. For instance, it was not until 1978 that the first university was opened on the islands.
4. *Relatives.* Many Azoreans have relatives in the United States. Often, when these relatives write or visit the islands, they relate the much improved living conditions found in the United States. They frequently assist other Azoreans with immigration and initial financial arrangements.

Even though the previously mentioned factors appear to be the major stimuli for Portuguese immigration (Williams, 1982), important economic and political events also have influenced the numbers of Azoreans who have entered the United States. The whaling industry in California and New England and the textile mills of New England created a demand for Portuguese workers. The fluctuating immigration laws of the United States also regulated Portuguese immigration because, in almost every period, the number of prospective immigrants was much larger than the government-imposed quota for Portugal and her territories. A graphic overview of Portuguese immigration from 1790 to the present is shown in Table 5.

Thus, unlike some immigrant groups whose members fled the mother country to escape political, religious, or military persecution, the Azoreans have emigrated, for the most part, to improve their standard of living. While certainly grateful to their newly adopted homeland, most Portuguese-speaking immigrants maintain a positive attitude toward their original homeland, language, and culture. Manifestations of this phenomenon are discussed in Chapter II.

Education in Portuguese-Speaking Countries

In the major Lusophone cities, such as Lisbon, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Luanda, Maputo, Ponta Delgada, Oporto, and other urban areas, most children, especially those attending private schools, are likely to experience a modern education comparable to that received by youngsters in the United States. In the rural areas of Portugal, Brazil, and the Azores, educational resources are much more limited. Various aspects of schooling in the rural areas of the Lusophone world will be described in this section. As in previous sections of this handbook, the Azores will be used as a source of representative examples.

On most of the nine islands of the Azores, villages are small in size, with populations of less than 1,000 residents. Homes are clustered

along two or three main streets. The villages are located mostly along the seacoast. Almost all of the villagers are engaged in agriculture. Except for houses and barns, usually the only other buildings found in the community are the church, the general store, perhaps a government office such as the postal service, and, of course, the school. Though many of the villages like those on Flores Island have beautiful names such as Lajes, Fajã Grande, Fajãzinha, Mosteiro, and Santa Cruz, most of the inhabitants live in poverty. Clearly, the local village schools are affected adversely by these conditions.

Table 5

Phases of Portuguese Immigration to the United States

Type of data	*1790—1870*	*1871—1923*	*1924—1957*	*1958—Present*
Economic condition	Whaling	Textiles	Collapse of textile mills	Depressed economy
Immigration legislation	None	Emergency Restriction Law (1921)	National Origins Act (1924)	Azorean refugee acts (1958 and 1960) Immigration and Nationality Act (1965)
Portuguese nationals entering the United States (estimate)	5,000	170,000	Annual quota of 440 visas	125,000
Portuguese residing in New England (estimate)	50%	65%	Not available	65%
Geographic origins of Portuguese immigrants	Not available	Continentals 23% Azoreans 67% Madeira 10%	Not available	Continentals 42% Azoreans 57% Madeira 1%

Source: Adapted from Cabral, 1980, p. 82.

Each village usually has a two- or three-room schoolhouse constructed of masonry with a tile roof. Frequently, there is no heating, lighting, or running water. Floors are made of cement or stone. Furniture consists of rustic wooden tables and benches. Often, the teacher's desk and chair are placed on a small platform.

Except for some initial construction costs and the teachers' salaries, the government is unable to provide other types of financial and administrative support to the schools. Supplies such as paper, pencils, crayons, rulers, sporting equipment, and other features such as libraries, cafeterias, and audiovisual rooms so common in American schools are extremely scarce. These are provided only at the community's expense; however, the government does provide most textbooks.

Classrooms are clean and orderly, with students sitting in straight rows. As many as 70 students may be assigned to one primary class. The curriculum is of the classical European variety, with much emphasis on history, geography, and language arts. Students are required to memorize enormous quantities of facts without any further analysis or application. Until recently, the curriculum was developed at the Ministry of Education in Lisbon in a highly centralized fashion with no particular modifications made for the Azores or other regions.

The teachers, although greatly respected by community and students alike, tend to be quite authoritarian in their relationships with students. Strict discipline is enforced, sometimes with harsh physical punishment or ridicule. Many teachers are given rural teaching posts after only a minimal amount of training, sometimes as little as an eighth-grade education.

Students often miss a considerable number of days of school each year on account of poor health and the demands of farm work. Even when attending school, students often arrive late because they have been milking cows, feeding poultry, or working in gardens. With less than optimal nutrition and adequate medical care, plus the energy drain caused by agricultural labor, these students may not focus consistently on the academic challenges of school. Another important factor is that many children may not associate education with upward social and economic mobility. On the basis of traditional practices, this viewpoint is well founded. In the rural, semifeudalistic environment of the Azores, formal schooling does not automatically lead to an improved life-style. Thus, the harsh conditions and lack of student motivation combine to limit further the effectiveness of the Portuguese educational system.

Since 1975 more than 800,000 refugees from former Portuguese colonies such as Angola, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde, Mozambique, and Timor have seriously taxed mainland and insular Portuguese governmental services in general and the educational system in partic-

ular. Even so, several informal sources have reported that refugee children, generally, have better academic preparation than do children born in Portugal and the islands. This is partly because many of the refugees came from the "white" upper classes which enjoyed special government and private enterprise privileges when overseas.

Beginning in 1967 and reinforced after the revolution of 1974, the Portuguese government and the regional autonomous government of the Azores have made impressive educational reforms. Notable among these improvements are (1) the decentralization of curriculum and administration; (2) improved quality of instructional materials and teacher training; (3) more emphasis on early childhood education; and (4) the expansion of secondary-school and university-level facilities into the rural areas. Consequently, children attending school in Portugal and the Azores after 1974 tend to experience greatly improved educational services than were available before 1974. However, educational improvements have been applied somewhat unevenly in the country, with certain areas such as Trás-os-Montes and Alentejo provinces on the mainland and Sao Miguel Island (rural villages) of the Azores lagging behind the rest of the nation.

Chapter II

Historical and Sociocultural Factors Concerning Portuguese-Speaking Peoples

Certain major historical and sociocultural factors are believed to have important influences on Luso-American students. In this chapter specific language and educational background factors that are believed to be related to the performance of Portuguese-speaking children in school are examined. These issues are discussed in the context of both the Lusophone country of origin and the Portuguese-American community.

Factors in Portuguese-Speaking Countries

In this section the general educational conditions in Portuguese-speaking countries are examined. The reader will become aware of the type of education experienced by Portuguese language background students before they immigrate to the United States. Factors such as literacy, curriculum, and English language exposure in Portugal and other Lusophone areas are discussed.

Literacy Issues

Even though definitions of literacy vary widely, the literacy rate in Lusophone countries traditionally has been low. In spite of being a member of the European community, Portugal has not modernized at the same rate as its neighbors. Brazil too has been plagued by political and economic instability. Yet, in recent years both Portugal and Brazil have made impressive gains toward universal literacy. The most current literacy rates for Lusophone countries are shown in Table 6.

Although Portugal and Brazil appear to be winning the battle against illiteracy, the other Portuguese-speaking countries have not been so successful. Most of these countries have been independent only since 1975. They have suffered from more than 400 years of colonial neglect. Most of the inhabitants speak native languages, and, for them, Portuguese is a second language. For instance, in Macao (still officially a Portuguese overseas province), only 10 percent of the inhabitants speak Portuguese. The remaining 90 percent are native speakers of Chinese. In Cape Verde, Crioulo (creole) is the *língua franca,* with Portuguese used in schools and for governmental pur-

poses. The large African states of Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea-Bissau have retained Portuguese as the official language. Except in the urban areas, children in these countries are not usually exposed to Portuguese until they enter school. On the other hand, these countries are implementing extensive literacy campaigns. For the past several years, the famous Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire, has led the fight against illiteracy in Guinea-Bissau and São Tomé e Príncipe.

Although the literacy rates for Portugal and Brazil are similar, there is an important difference in the patterns of immigration into the United States. Generally, the immigrants from Brazil, although relatively small in number, have come from urban areas and have received higher levels of education than their Portuguese counterparts. This point is illustrated in Table 7.

Table 6

Literacy Rates in Portuguese-Speaking Countries

Country	*Population (in millions)*	*Literacy rate, percent*
Angola	7.0	15
Brazil	118.5	83
Cape Verde	0.3	14
Guinea-Bissau	0.8	5
Mozambique	10.0	12
Portugal	9.8	71
São Tomé e Príncipe	0.1	10
Macao	0.3	10

Source: Bacheller, 1981.

Table 7

Occupational Categories of Lusophone Immigrants

Country	*Professional workers, percent*	*Industrial workers, percent*	*Agricultural workers, percent*	*Others, percent*
Brazil	11	25	1	63
Portugal	4	50	30	16

Source: *1977 Annual Report*, 1978, p. 47.

Immigrants from other Portuguese-speaking countries to the United States have been small in number. Such immigrants usually come from the upper or privileged classes. While this usually means high levels of literacy in Portuguese, in the case of some African refugees, the children's schooling has been interrupted and some children have experienced severe psychosocial and cultural trauma.

Until 1967, when educational reforms were initiated, mandatory schooling for each child in Portugal consisted of only four years. Therefore, most children finished school by the time they were eleven years old. The educational reforms initiated in 1967 were continued after the 1974 revolution. Although the Portuguese educational system experienced a period of transition in the 1970s, during which there was a lack of school facilities and trained teachers, educational opportunities for Portuguese children are substantially more available now than before. Mandatory schooling has been extended to fourteen years of age.

Before the revolution of 1974, social class was an extremely important determinant of whether or not a child received an education beyond elementary school. Only the people from the upper social classes could afford to send their children to secondary and postsecondary schools. Since most rural areas had only elementary school facilities, children often had to go to a different town or village or in the case of the Azores, another island, to be able to attend a secondary school. In such cases the family had to pay tuition, travel expenses, and room and board.

Educational Implications

Some very important implications may be drawn from the information presented in this section. Many of the students who immigrated from the Azores, Madeira, and Portugal to the United States before 1974 had been in school a maximum of four years and, therefore, probably had relatively low academic skills. If the students immigrated after they were ten years old, then it was likely that they would have been out of school for some time, making it difficult for them to have the necessary academic or social skills to compete successfully with their peers.

For children immigrating after 1974, it is more likely that they would have been in school at least until the age of fourteen. However, one should take into consideration the fact that, because of the rapid expansion of the Portuguese educational system, some of these children might not have always received the most effective education.

An important distinction should be made regarding the children coming from Brazil and the children coming from the Azores, Madeira, and Portugal. Often, the children coming from Brazil will

have better developed academic skills than the children coming from the Azores and Portugal. There are two reasons for this. First, the Brazilian children usually come from a higher socioeconomic group and second, they are more likely to have been in school longer than the children of Portuguese immigrants. Therefore, while an older child (twelve to eighteen years of age) coming from Brazil may be ready for academic English language instruction because of well-developed primary language skills, a child coming from the Azores or Portugal may need to have the primary language further developed before academic instruction in English is effective. One should keep in mind that these are general observations and that each child should be individually assessed, regardless of country of origin.

The low literacy rate also has important implications regarding parents. Because Portuguese parents who now live in the United States were educated before the 1970s, their literacy instruction may have been quite limited; and in most cases their abilities may have deteriorated further because of the lack of practice and use of literacy skills. Therefore, any program seeking to establish a successful parent involvement component needs to take this factor into consideration.

Attitudes Toward Education

A discussion of the attitudes in Portuguese-speaking countries toward well-developed literacy skills should take into consideration the different social classes. There is no doubt that the upper and middle classes have always looked favorably on well-developed literacy skills. The same cannot be said of the lower social classes, especially those people coming from the small villages in the Azores where opportunities for education have been very limited. J. P. Adler explains the apparent lack of concern for education on the part of the Azoreans as follows:

> Opportunities for education past the primary level are still very limited in the Azores, even after the education reforms of 1967. And since the simple rural economy they left demonstrates little of the advantages of education, most Azorean immigrants naturally do not share the attitudes toward education prevalent in industrial societies. (Adler, 1972, p. 23)

Such attitudes toward education are changing slowly, even with the increased opportunities for higher education. This is evident with the increasing number of students now pursuing advanced education. More parents now see education as the key to a comfortable life in the city and an opportunity for social mobility. Unfortunately, this emphasis on education diminishes once Portuguese immigrants arrive in the United States. The main reason for immigration to the United States by Azorean people is to improve economic conditions. Therefore, in many cases, education becomes secondary when it conflicts

with immediate financial gains. H. H. Leder explains this ambivalence toward education in the following way:

> Considering the economic success that this generation of "drop-outs" has enjoyed in California, it is not surprising that . . . their descendants have continued to show relatively little interest in our political and educational institutions (Leder, 1968, p. 35).

This attitude has been prevalent particularly among the older Portuguese immigrants, and it may be one of the reasons many older immigrants look unfavorably on education. One might argue, however, that the opportunities for economic success without education are much more limited now than they were 50 years ago. Therefore, a child who leaves school today without a complete education probably would have fewer opportunities for success than he or she would have had a half-century ago.

Many researchers have demonstrated the important role that parents play in promoting the school achievement of their children. The ways in which parents interact with their children during early childhood and the ways in which parents support and reinforce their children in school have important consequences for their future academic success. Informal observations by Portuguese bilingual educators in the United States suggest that some Luso-American and Portuguese immigrant parents do not engage their children in activities which prepare the children for the academic challenges of school. Several reasons may be found for this. First, since many parents have not had much schooling themselves, they may feel uncomfortable participating in such activities with their children. Second, the parents often are not aware of which types of home activities can have a positive effect on their children's schoolwork. Finally, parents sometimes are doubtful that the use of the Portuguese language in any activities will be beneficial. Often, they are mistakenly told that interaction in Portuguese will even be harmful. These factors tend to limit both the quantity and quality of interaction between parents and their children during early childhood.

Attitudes Toward Reading and Writing Skills

For many years in Portugal, students were taught to read and write in their first year of school (first grade), usually at the age of seven. This practice continues, but now, with the addition of kindergarten, the first grade is the second year of formal schooling. Currently, elementary school in Portugal consists of six years divided into three phases (*fases*) of two years each. This program is designed to place students in the same *fase* for two years so that they might progress at their own pace. Secondary school consists of a *Curso Unificado* and a *Curso Complementar*, each lasting three years. The first part of

secondary school, *Curso Unificado,* is mandatory whereas the second part, *Curso Complementar,* is voluntary.

A child entering a public school in the Azores, Madeira, or Portugal usually will advance through the following elementary levels:

1. *Primeira Fase (first and second year).* Emphasis is placed on readiness skills, including motor and sensory skills development as well as concept building. Reading instruction usually begins in the second year, with emphasis on decoding skills. Some areas of the country now offer one year of kindergarten (*jardim infantil*) before the first phase. The availability of this first year of school depends on whether or not the local authorities are able to offer the facilities for kindergarten. The curriculum during this first year involves oral language development and sensory motor skills development.
2. *Segunda Fase (third and fourth years).* Students continue to develop their reading skills, with heavy emphasis on comprehension skills. By the end of the fourth year, most students are independent readers who have mastered readiness, decoding, comprehension, and some study skills.
3. *Ensino Preparatório (fifth and sixth years).* At this level emphasis is placed on reading for information. Reading is integrated in the content areas. Instruction during these two years contains special preparation for secondary school.

Informed educators from Portugal report that the average student does very little reading for enjoyment. What is read for enjoyment tends to be brief informative materials, including cartoon booklets or magazines, the sports section of newspapers, and other periodicals. Older students also enjoy reading novels by foreign, especially Brazilian, authors. It should be noted that in many areas, especially in the Azores, there is a lack of reading material. There are few libraries. A literate, affluent population needed to support literary endeavors simply does not exist.

Most Portuguese students do very little writing besides that which is required in school activities. The most common writing activity outside school involves letter writing, because so many of the students have relatives in other countries. Some students participate in writing contests sponsored by writers' associations and other cultural foundations. Classroom writing activities include handwriting, spelling, mechanics of writing, and discourse. Students in Portuguese public schools are taught cursive writing from the beginning of their school experience. Activities include writing known words, completing unfinished words, and making words of scrambled syllables.

Minimal emphasis is placed on spelling since the phoneme/grapheme correspondence is highly consistent in Portuguese. Whatever

attention is given focuses on irregular spellings and uncommon words. Spelling activities include filling in missing words in sentences, organizing illustrated dictionaries, and taking dictation. Spelling is often integrated into content areas.

The skills involved in the mechanics of writing (e.g., capitalization, punctuation, and abbreviations) are usually integrated into discourse writing. Some activities used to develop discourse skills include (1) writing sentences that go with parts of a story and organizing a scrambled sentence; and (2) developing paragraphs (i.e., organizing sentences of a story in the proper order; answering questions; writing invitations, announcements, and notices; writing a paragraph about pictures; writing personal stories; writing letters; and writing about observed events). In paragraph writing the student's attention is focused on purpose, style, and format.

The student develops his or her writing skills by writing reports about field trips, interviews, and other experiences. In report writing the student's attention is focused on content and process. The following types of skills are emphasized: writing outlines, preparing rough drafts, and proofreading.

Attitudes Toward Oral Skills

Many observers have concluded that well-developed oral communication skills are highly regarded by most Portuguese-speaking people. In fact, most of the social opportunities of young people require the development of such skills. Young people often get together just to talk (*conversar*) either at a sidewalk cafe or other established meeting place. A popular topic of conversation is the speaking ability of a particular radio announcer or television personality. One also can find many people who have very little formal education but who have an excellent vocabulary and are able to manipulate language very well. Many of the programs sponsored by schools or other organizations include recitation of poems written by famous poets. Another favorite activity includes what is known as *cantar ao desafio,* which consists of two people singing improvised rhymes about a selected subject. The competitor who, in the audience's opinion, improvises the best rhymes is the winner. It appears, however, that most of the highly regarded oral language skills are not directly related to subsequent literacy development.

Recently, schools in Portugal have been making a much more conscious effort to develop the literacy-related oral language skills of children. For example, the first year of school focuses on oral language development and other reading readiness activities. These activities may include reciting poetry, singing songs, and memorizing and reciting riddles and short stories. Most of the elementary schoolbooks developed in Portugal have a great variety of poems, riddles,

songs, and short stories to be read to the students as a part of oral language development lessons and then to be memorized and recited by the students. Parents are always very impressed and proud of their children when they hear them recite, especially if it is part of a public performance.

Recent reports of language research (Cummins, 1981) suggest that there are at least two dimensions of language proficiency: (1) basic interpersonal communicative skills; and (2) cognitive and academic language proficiency. Generally, the Portuguese-speaking community has recognized and valued basic oral communication skills. The need for other types of language skills, those skills which are more closely related to literacy and academic achievement, is not always understood by the Portuguese-speaking community in general nor by the Portuguese-speaking parents in particular. As stated previously, without orientation, some parents might not interact with their children in ways which promote literacy and academic achievement.

Study of English in Portuguese-Speaking Countries

Until the recent educational reform in Portugal, most students began to study English in their third year of *liceu* or seventh year of schooling. Presently, students are required to take a second language in the first year of *Ensino Preparatório,* which is their fifth year of schooling. Most students choose either English or French, with the majority selecting English. Students study the language of their choice until the end of secondary school. In the first year of secondary school or seventh grade, students may elect to study a third language.

The study of English in the Azores and in Portugal has two goals. The first goal is to prepare the student for employment. Since so many businesses deal with American and British enterprises, it is definitely an advantage to know English, not only in tourist-related businesses but also in many other industries. The second goal of English study is to prepare students for university entrance requirements. Many universities require at least one foreign language for admission. In the Azores there are two added incentives to learn English. The first one relates to the existence of a United States Air Force base on one of the islands, Terceira. The second one is that most people in the Azores have relatives in the United States, Canada, or Australia.

The great majority of the elementary school-age children emigrating from the Azores and Portugal will probably have had little or no contact with English before coming to the United States. Some older students might have had some contact with English, usually in formal grammar translation classes at secondary schools. Therefore, although a few immigrant students may have some knowledge of English gram-

mar and reading, they are not likely to have well-developed communicative abilities.

Use of English in Portugal

In the Azores and in Portugal, English is not a language that one hears everywhere. However, many of the employees of tourist-related industries, such as hotels and restaurants, do speak English and will use it when necessary. The use of English, therefore, will be much more common in the urban areas than in the rural areas. In addition, since there is a United States Air Force base on Terceira, the use of English will be more common on that island than in other places in the Azores and Portugal.

English is used in academic circles to allow access to English literature and scientific research. It is used to a certain extent in commerce because many of the business enterprises are associated with foreign companies. Many professionals are required to speak English because some of their professional development activities, such as conferences and training, are conducted in English. One should note, however, that the English used in Portugal is the British variety. Initially, this might cause slight comprehension problems in an American environment for persons who have less than native-speaker fluency.

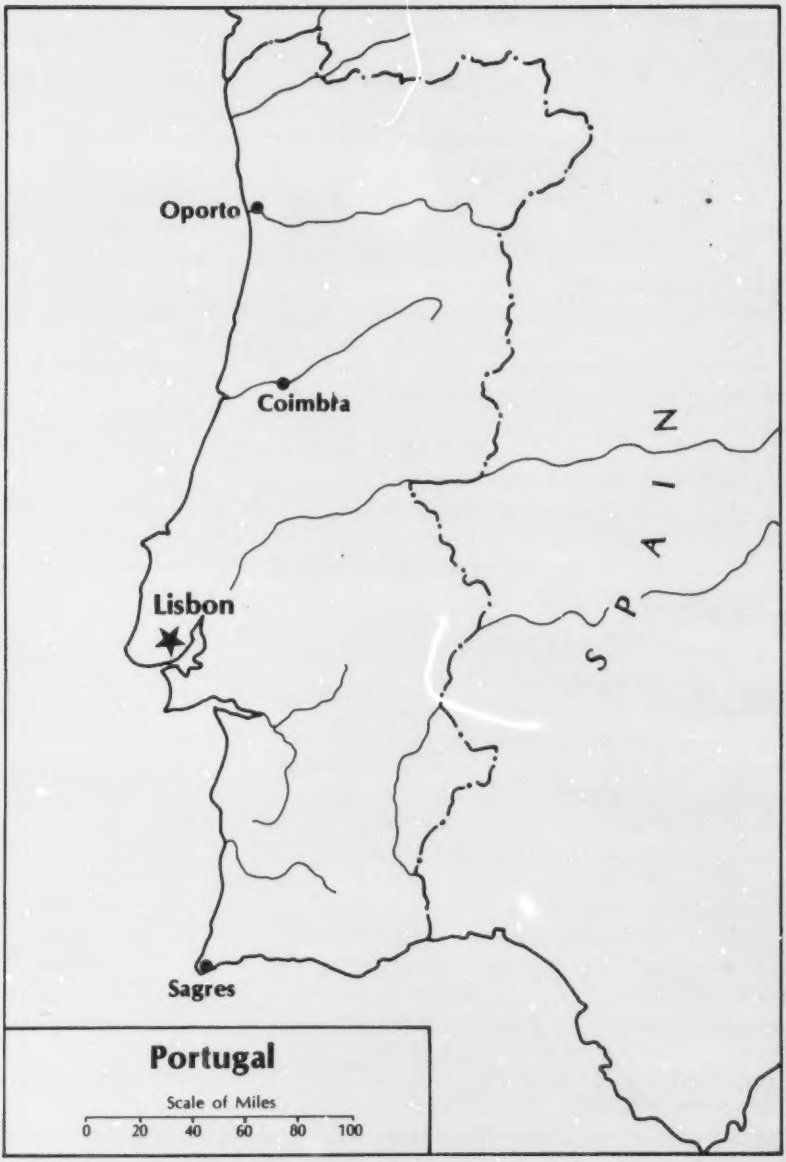
Factors in the United States

In this section the sociolinguistic environment of Portuguese-American communities and neighborhoods is examined. The use of both English and Portuguese is considered in the Luso-American context. General information is given about the academic achievement patterns of Portuguese-speaking students.

Exposure to English

Whether students have had contact with English outside their school experience depends on the home and the community where the students are living. The different variables which affect the use of English should be considered.

Many Portuguese-American families have at least one member who cannot speak English; therefore, Portuguese is the language most often used in the home. Other Luso-American families, to preserve their ethnic language and heritage, make the conscious choice to use Portuguese as the main language in the home. English is the home language in about 60 percent of Luso-American homes (Veltman, 1980). There are several means by which most children come into contact with English at home. The first one, and probably the most significant one, is television. Portuguese-speaking children, as other children, spend many hours viewing television. Second, many young


Oporto
Coimbra
Lisbon
Sagres
SPAIN
Portugal
Scale of Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100

children come into contact with English through older or younger siblings. Informal observations have demonstrated that in many Portuguese immigrant families, especially in the larger ones, older children begin school knowing almost no English, while younger ones begin school with a much greater knowledge of English.

Community factors also determine, in part, the amount of contact students have with English outside their school experience. A child who lives in a rural environment may have fewer opportunities to have contact with English than a child who lives in an urban environment. Children who live on ranches or dairies usually experience an essentially Portuguese-speaking environment. Often, their parents' employer speaks Portuguese and so does everyone else on the ranch. Children who live in an urban environment usually will have more opportunities to interact with English-speaking youngsters. A Portuguese child in San Jose is more likely to experience more contact with the English language than a child living on a ranch in Gustine.

The following are two hypothetical examples that will illustrate this point. Recently, five-year-old José António entered a kindergarten class in Livingston, California. Both parents worked at Foster Farms, and José António and his three-year-old sister stayed with their grandmother, who spoke only Portuguese. The year before he entered kindergarten, José had very few friends to play with during the day. On weekends he visited his cousins, who had recently arrived from the Azores. Upon entering kindergarten, José António was tested with the *Language Assessment Scales.* He scored at level 1 in English. Testing in Portuguese indicated that he had the language development of a normal five-year-old child. During the same year, Manuel Francisco, who also was five years old, entered kindergarten in a school in San Jose. Both of Manuel Francisco's parents worked, but he stayed with a bilingual babysitter who took care of several other children. He also had two older brothers, one of whom was seven years old and the other was ten years old. When Manuel Francisco was tested with the *Language Assessment Scales,* he scored at level 3 in English. Manuel was also tested in Portuguese, and the test results showed that his language expression capabilities were normal for a five-year-old child. Obviously, many factors could have contributed to the difference in the English interpersonal communicative skills of each child. One of these factors was certainly the linguistic environment in which each child was raised.

In summary, most Portuguese children have much contact with English before and outside school. Different degrees of contact depend, in part, on where the children live and their home environment. Once Portuguese-speaking children enroll in school, with extremely few exceptions, they appear to acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in English in a span of two to three years.

Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for the English cognitive/academic language skills more closely associated with literacy and academic achievement. Such skills are developed more slowly (from five to seven years of schooling) and then only with careful planning on the part of teachers, administrators, and parents.

Maintenance of the Native Language

Studies on the maintenance of the Portuguese language show that Portuguese-Americans do at least as well as or slightly better than other ethnic groups in the maintenance of their native language. Results of two California studies indicate that the Portuguese immigrants follow the classical three-stage process of assimilation into the American mainstream: Portuguese monolingualism among the first-generation immigrant, bilingualism among the immediate descendants, followed by English monolingualism in the third generation (Williams, 1976; Gomes, 1974). However, another investigator reported that an impressive 40.3 percent of Luso-Americans maintain the Portuguese language (Veltman, 1980). The data shown in Table 8 indicate that Portuguese-speaking students born in the United States experience a moderate loss in their primary language. This may be attributed to several language-use patterns found in Portuguese-American communities. Some of these systems are informal, such as

Table 8

Occurrence of English Monolingualism Among Selected Language Group Members Born in the United States and Aged Fifteen or Over, 1976

Language group	*Total*	*Monolingual*	*Percent*
Chinese	123,414	55,582	45.0
Filipino	98,259	71,643	72.7
French	2,930,096	1,907,584	65.1
German	1,394,321	1,203,645	86.3
Greek	312,990	155,397	49.6
Italian	5,166,001	3,675,171	71.1
Japanese	395,745	212,725	53.8
Polish	331,356	184,510	55.7
Portuguese	**389,042**	**232,131**	**59.7**
Scandinavian	329,815	269,624	81.8
Spanish	4,539,832	1,416,062	31.1
Native American	872,849	671,646	76.9

Source: Veltman, 1980, p. 14.

those used in the home, at church, and at social events. Others are formal systems, such as those used in bilingual education and university programs. Informal systems are those which develop Portuguese language skills as an incidental occurrence. Formal systems are those whose primary purpose is the development of the Portuguese language.

As stated earlier, many Portuguese parents attempt to develop and maintain the Portuguese language skills of their children. In fact, many Portuguese parents insist that their children speak only Portuguese at home. The home is probably the single most important environment in the development of the children's Portuguese language skills. The church also plays a very important role in the lives of most Portuguese-speaking people and thus affects the development of the children's Portuguese language skills. Almost every church with a substantial number of Portuguese-speaking members has weekly services in the Portuguese language, providing children with a regular opportunity to hear Portuguese.

Other social events provide numerous opportunities for exposure to the Portuguese language. Probably one of the most important is the Portuguese custom of regularly exchanging family visits. Portuguese families visit one another frequently—not only members of the nuclear family but also the extended family members, such as aunts, uncles, in-laws, and cousins. Other family events include the *matança* (killing of the pig), weddings, birthday parties, and funerals.

Recently, Portuguese immigrants have become increasingly aware that "students coming to this country have not continued to learn in Portuguese, and with insufficient knowledge of English, they have not been able to take full advantage of their studies in the American classroom. They now find themselves at the intermediate and secondary levels unable to read satisfactorily in either their dominant or second language" (Williams, 1976, p. 138). This awareness has led to the movement for the establishment of Portuguese bilingual education programs. Since 1967 a total of 17 such programs have been established throughout California. A State Conference on Portuguese-American Education, sponsored by the Luso-American Education Foundation, has been held every year since 1977 at various locations in California. These conferences have been supported by the California State Department of Education, school districts, and various other educational agencies throughout the state. Several hundred educators attend this conference annually.

In some parts of the United States, parochial schools have been established to provide instruction both in English and Portuguese. These schools frequently are part of "national" parishes in Massachusetts, such as Mt. Carmel in New Bedford, Espírito Santo in Fall River, and parishes in other areas on the East Coast (Pereira, 1977).

National parishes are parishes which are especially established to serve the Portuguese-speaking community.

Of special note is a Saturday language school founded in 1981 by the Portuguese community in the Santa Clara area. Escola Corte Real, sponsored in part by the local chapter of APUMEC (Associação Protectora União Madeirense do Estado da Califórnia), is located in the facilities of St. Clair's Roman Catholic School in Santa Clara. On Saturday afternoons students attend classes devoted to Portuguese language and culture. Classes are taught by native speakers of Portuguese with teaching experience in the United States and/or Portugal. Initial enrollment consisted of 60 students. The San Francisco Bay Area has at least six Portuguese community schools. In addition, a number of parochial schools offer instruction in Portuguese. For example, the Cinco Chagas School in San Jose had an enrollment of 194 students in 1983.

At the postsecondary educational level, many universities throughout the United States have established chairs of Portuguese studies. Some of these are Harvard University, Brown University, University of California at Los Angeles, University of California at Santa Barbara, University of California at Berkeley, and California State University, Hayward. Institutions such as Brown University, Boston State College, Boston University, Rhode Island College, Southeastern Massachusetts University, and California State University, Hayward, have instituted bilingual teacher training at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Recently, California State University, Hayward, in cooperation with the Office of the Merced County Superintendent of Schools, developed a program leading to a Bilingual Cross-Cultural Specialist Credential in Portuguese (Andrade, 1979). In 1973 the University of California at Santa Barbara hosted the first annual Summer Institute in Portuguese. Funded largely by the Gulbenkian Foundation of Lisbon, the institute attracts many students from all over the state and the nation who come to live in the "Portuguese House" and study everything from beginning Portuguese to graduate classes in history and Luso-Brazilian literature (Williams, 1980). Since 1974 several symposia on the Portuguese presence in California have taken place. The first one, held in San Leandro, was jointly sponsored by the Centro Cultural Cabrilho, the Cultural Center of the União Portuguesa do Estado da Califórnia (UPEC), and the Luso-American Education Foundation.

All of the systems that have been described contribute in some way to the development of children's Portuguese language skills. Many Portuguese parents try to develop the Portuguese language at home and apparently succeed, at least until the children enter public school. Unfortunately, once the children enter school, the task becomes more difficult. School personnel often do not understand the role of Portu-

guese in the cognitive, academic, and affective development of Luso-American children. In most cases the schools provide English-only instruction, and many teachers even insist that parents switch from Portuguese to English in the home. Although in some cases Portuguese-speaking children appear to progress normally through school under such conditions, a growing body of evidence suggests that many do not. (See the "Report on the Investigation of Complaints Against the Hilmar Unified School District," 1981). Many Luso-American children apparently suffer the negative effects of subtractive bilingualism. Even those who progress satisfactorily in English-only environments may not be realizing their full potential.

The Portuguese-speaking community in the United States has established an informal network to develop and preserve the Portuguese language and culture. A formal network also has been established to a lesser extent. These systems have been effective to a minor degree as evidenced by a moderate shift by Luso-Americans to reliance on only English. Unfortunately, the academic achievement and the psychosocial adjustment of many students caught in the process of language shift are affected negatively. The public school system appears to have had a negative effect on the maintenance of the Portuguese language and culture in the United States (Fishman, 1977). Although many sociolinguistic factors exist outside the school, some of these can be influenced by the school. Clearly, the attitudes of parents and educators affect the rate of language maintenance and language shift among Portuguese-speaking students.

The Portuguese language is used in a significant number of communities in California. Many parents are very much concerned that their children maintain the Portuguese language. However, because they also want their children to learn English and because they are not aware that the development of the primary language assists in the acquisition of English, they are sometimes willing to give the public schools total freedom to develop a monolingual educational program for their children. The results of studies ("Evaluation of the Fall River Middle School," 1973; DiBiasio and Sullivan, 1971) have shown that once Portuguese-speaking parents are informed of the various educational programs available for their children and the consequences of each program, they are strongly in favor of the programs that develop and build on their children's primary language.

Use of the Portuguese Language in California

Some California communities, such as San Jose and Santa Clara, have large concentrations of Portuguese-speaking people; others have smaller numbers. However, in all of these communities and neighborhoods, there are certain domains where the Portuguese language is characteristically used.

The use of the Portuguese language in the home has already been mentioned. However, the concept of the extended family makes the use of Portuguese language in the home more common than it might otherwise be. Grandparents often live in the same home with their children and grandchildren. Because the grandparents often do not speak English, the grandchildren have many opportunities to speak Portuguese.

The Roman Catholic Church plays a very important role in the lives of most Portuguese-speaking people. Almost every Luso-American community and neighborhood has a local church that provides religious services in Portuguese. Some churches offer religious instruction for the children in Portuguese. Presently, California has three Portuguese "national" parishes, one in San Jose, another in Sacramento, and a third in Turlock. These parishes serve, in a special way, the Portuguese-speaking people of a particular diocese. Each spring Portuguese communities throughout California sponsor Holy Ghost festivals. Although these are religious observances, such festivals also include parades, free community dinners, dances, soccer games, bullfights, and concerts. Again, Portuguese is commonly spoken at these events.

In the tuna and dairy industries of California, the language one hears most frequently is Portuguese. Today, 75 percent of the American tuna fleet, which is stationed at San Diego, is owned and operated by Luso-Americans (Williams, 1974). A similar situation exists in the dairy industry of California. Therefore, it is common for the Portuguese language to be used in these two settings.

Early Portuguese immigrants to California were eager to maintain their culture. In the late 1800s several Portuguese organizations were formed, such as the União Portuguesa do Estado da Califórnia (Portuguese Union of the State of California) and the Irmandade do Divino Espírito Santo (Brotherhood of the Divine Holy Ghost). Although the primary purpose of these fraternal and/or religious organizations was not the maintenance of the language, increased use of Portuguese was an outcome. For instance, it was not until 1937 that the use of English was permitted during the functions of the União Portuguesa do Estado da Califórnia. (For a listing of fraternal and religious organizations, see Appendix C.)

The Portuguese community also has numerous social organizations. In an article published in the *Portuguese Tribune* (October 1, 1980, p. 15), the following organizations were listed:

Clubes Desportivos (sporting clubs)

Artesia D.E.S.	Tulare Angrense
P.A.C.	United Islanders
Família Portuguesa	C.R.J. Hayward

Sport S. Clara	Haiduk
Escalon Soccer Club	Açoreano Sport
Vasco da Gama	Belenenses Hanford
Los Banos Soccer Club	Chino D.E.S.
Newark	Mundo Jovem
Sport Clube Hilmar	Casa Açoreana

Bandas (bands)

Artesia	Santa Clara
Banda de San José	Nova Aliança
Azores Band (Escalon)	Nova Artista de Tracy
A. Amadora (San Leandro)	União Popular San José

Ranchos Folclóricos (folk dance groups)

Portugal na Califórnia	Portugal em Acção
Grupo Folclórico Artesia	Watsonville
C.C. Português Turlock	Portuguese Y.C.G.

Conjuntos (musical groups)

Os Lusitanos	Os Atlânticos
Aquarius	6 de Portugal
Arco Iris	Sombras 78
Memórias de Portugal	Amor da Pátria
Odília Alvernaz	Ilha Azul
Pérola Azul	Ibéricos
Azes do Ritmo	Adágio
Sabor e Ritmo	Carlos Arruda
Fantasia	Manuel Ivo Cota

The Portuguese communities in California have a variety of communications media in the Portuguese language. Almost every Luso-American community has a radio program in Portuguese. Weekly newspapers with statewide distribution are published in Portuguese in three California cities—Hayward, San Jose, and San Pablo. Several television stations have regular programs in the Portuguese language.

The Portuguese-American fraternal organizations and the Portuguese language communications media often honor Luso-Americans who have made significant contributions to their ethnic community. Most of those honored are individuals from within the community who have participated for many years in social, religious, and cultural activities of special interest to the Portuguese. Many of those honored are dignitaries from the Portuguese government, such as visiting ministers or consuls. Recently, however, it has become more common to

recognize the achievements of Luso-Americans beyond the Portuguese ethnic community. Although the number of famous figures is relatively small, the Luso-American community is quite proud of such individuals. The names and professions of some of the most commonly recognized Portuguese-Americans are listed as follows:

In the nation

Bernard Baruch, financier
Benjamin Cardozo, Supreme Court Justice
John Dos Passos, author
Tony Lema, athlete
Humberto Madeiros, cardinal of the Catholic Church
Billy Martin, baseball manager
Carmen Miranda, actress
Elmar Oliveira, musician
Joe Raposo, musical composer
Benjamin Mendes Seixas, cofounder of the New York Stock Exchange
John Philip Sousa, musical composer

In California

Rusty Areias, member of the California State Assembly
Clarence Azevedo, former mayor of Sacramento
Tony Coelho, member of the U.S. House of Representatives
Jim Costa, member of the California State Assembly
Joseph Freitas, Jr., District Attorney, San Francisco
Davey Lopes, athlete
Mario Machado, television announcer
Henry Mello, member of the California State Senate
John Vasconcellos, member of the California State Assembly
Frank Vicencia, member of the California State Assembly

Chapter III

Linguistic Characteristics of the Portuguese Language

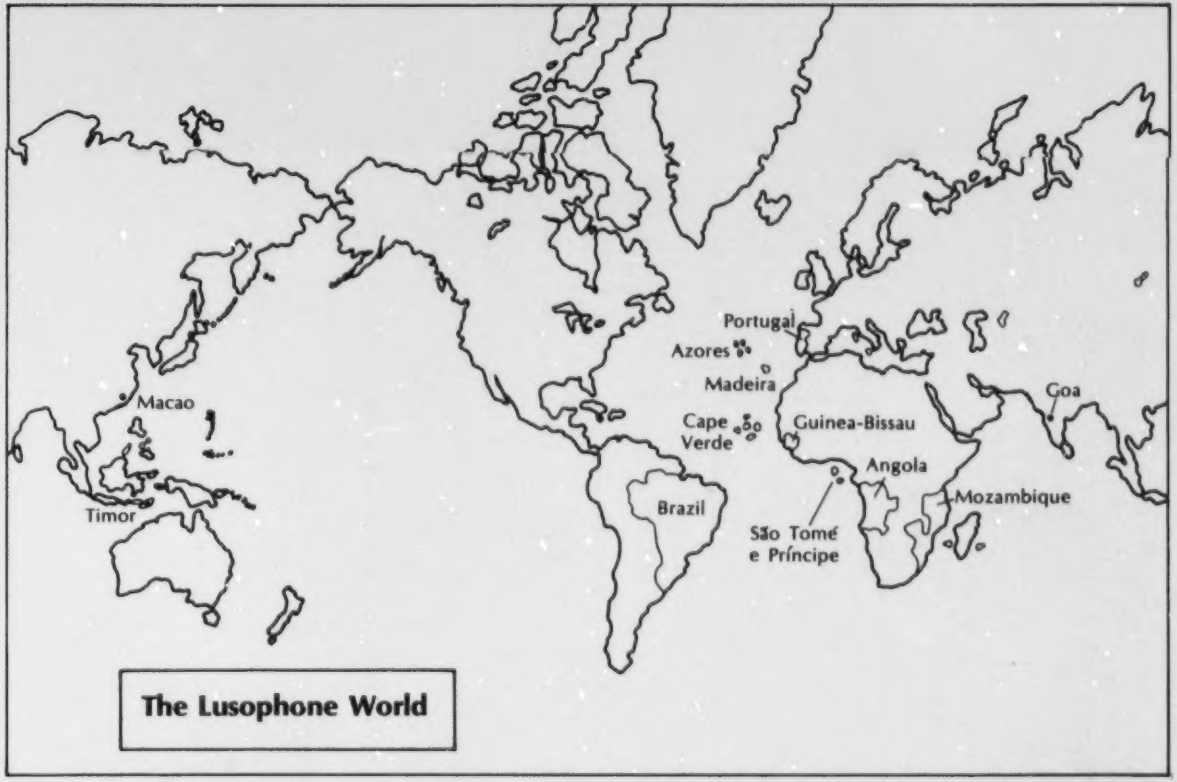
Portuguese is a Romance language, as are Spanish, French, and Italian. That is, it developed from Latin, the language of the Roman Empire as it was spoken on the Iberian and Italic peninsulas, and in the area known today as France. Latin, in turn, derives from the Italic branch of Indo-European. There are, therefore, common areas of comprehension both linguistically and culturally among the Romance languages. But they are each the consequence of social and linguistic processes which have contributed through the centuries to their unique and distinctive features.

To the basic vocabulary of Vulgar Latin origin, Portuguese has added words from Classical and Medieval Latin. It has borrowed from other European languages, especially Greek and French, from Arabic, and from the languages spoken where Portugal had hegemony during the colonial period. Written materials in Portuguese date from the twelfth century. The codification of the language (first grammar and dictionary) occurred during the Renaissance.

Since Portuguese is one of the lesser known of the Romance languages in the United States, it is sometimes erroneously thought that Portuguese is simply a "variant" of Spanish. This notion often serves as a rationale to place Portuguese-speaking children in English/Spanish bilingual settings, especially since they seem to understand some words. This judgment is not linguistically or pedagogically sound. Portuguese is as different from Spanish as it is from French or Italian. In addition, the entire history of Portugal as a nation has been a struggle to maintain its political, linguistic, and cultural independence from the ambitions of Spain, the country with which it shares the Iberian Peninsula. Portuguese-speaking children have strong linguistic reasons to require a setting appropriate to their educational needs. In addition, they have a cultural and political heritage that is more than 800 years old. This heritage historically placed the greatest value on Portugal's uniqueness, especially in contrast to the language and culture with which it is most often confused.

Location of Portuguese Speakers

Portuguese is spoken by approximately 150 million people in Portugal (including the Azores and Madeira), Cape Verde, São Tomé e Príncipe, and Brazil. It is also the official language of Angola,



The Lusophone World

37

Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, and Macao. In the northwestern part of Spain, some two million people speak Galician, a variety of Portuguese. There are about 250,000 Lusophones in the former Portuguese possessions of Diu, Damao, and Goa on the Indian Subcontinent (Grimes, 1978). Portuguese also is spoken in (1) the small African enclave of São João Baptista on the Ivory Coast; (2) certain border areas of Uruguay and Argentina; and (3) on the Indonesian island of Timor. Large numbers of Portuguese migrant workers are employed in France (823,000), South Africa (600,000), and Germany (112,000) (*Portuguese Tribune,* 1982, p. 5). Among world languages, Portuguese ranks seventh in the number of people who speak that language (Bacheller, 1981).

During the past 20 years, Portugal has sent more than one million of her citizens abroad. These emigrants have gone to almost every corner of the globe; however, a few of the more developed countries have been recipients of most of the emigrants. Wherever Portuguese people emigrate, they tend to maintain their language and culture and should be counted among the Lusophone peoples of the world. Portuguese emigration from 1960 to 1980 is shown in Table 9.

Communication Between Different Speakers

The Portuguese language is quite homogeneous. Native speakers have minimal difficulty communicating with each other in spite of the distinctive features that exist in pronunciation, vocabulary, and syntax, especially between European Portuguese and that spoken in South America. The only institutionalized distinctions codified in publications such as dictionaries, grammars, and the press are those

Table 9

Portuguese Emigrants and Country of Destination Since 1960 (in thousands)

Country	*Total emigrants*	*Country*	*Total emigrants*
Angola	11	Mozambique	16
Argentina	60	Netherlands	10
Australia	31	South Africa	600
Belgium	18	Spain	30
Brazil	1,200	Switzerland	9
Canada	240	United Kingdom	45
France	823	United States	155
Germany	112	Venezuela	140
Luxembourg	30	Other countries	30

Source: *Emigrantes Portugueses,* 1982.

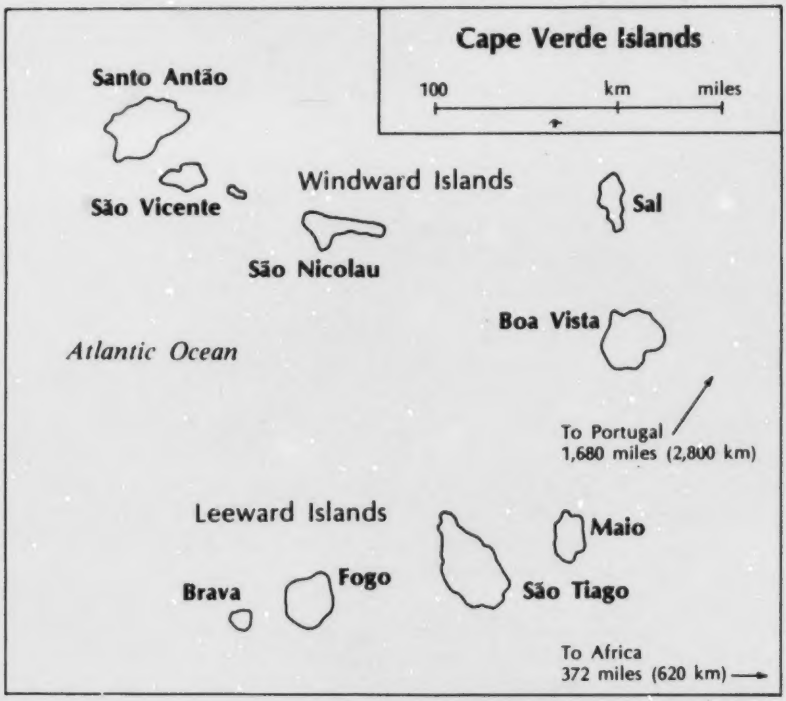
of Portuguese as spoken in Portugal and Brazil. The newly independent countries of Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, and the Atlantic islands of Cape Verde and São Tomé e Príncipe most likely will establish unique varieties of Portuguese. The varieties of the Portuguese language are as follows:

Mutually intelligible	*Mutually unintelligible*
Continental Galician Insular Brazilian	Crioulo

Continental Portuguese is the variety of the language spoken in Portugal. Nearly two million Spaniards speak a dialect of Portuguese known as *Galego* (Galician) or *Galaico Português*. Insular Portuguese is spoken in the Azores and Madeira islands and by a majority of Portuguese-speaking persons in the United States and Canada. Of course, Brazilian Portuguese is prevalent in that South American country and is still the variety of Portuguese most commonly taught in universities and colleges in the United States. Crioulo is an Afro-Portuguese creole and the *língua franca* of Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, parts of Senegal, and, to a smaller degree, in other former Portuguese African colonies. Unlike Continental, Galician, Insular, and Brazilian Portuguese, which are mutually intelligible among native speakers of Portuguese, communication between speakers of Crioulo and other speakers of Portuguese is to a large degree unintelligible. One source estimates that there are approximately 250,000 speakers of Crioulo in the world (Hayes and others, 1977).

The status of Crioulo is, perhaps, quite special and merits attention. Although relatively few speakers of Crioulo live in California (a small colony in Sacramento), a significant number of them are found in New England, mainly Massachusetts and Rhode Island (Gonçalves, 1974).

In 1977 the State Assembly of Massachusetts passed legislation which distinguished Crioulo as a language separate from Portuguese and required that Crioulo-speaking students be placed in bilingual classrooms separate from those that currently existed for Portuguese-speaking students. Even though Crioulo is considered a Romance language by most linguists (Hayes and others, 1977), the issue of the status of Crioulo became politicized and resulted in serious pedagogical implications. In addition to the creation of separate instructional settings, new materials had to be developed and teachers who were



proficient in Crioulo had to be located. Up to that time the language did not have a specific codification system, and most people who spoke Crioulo and who were trained beyond the primary level of public school were also fluent speakers of Portuguese. However, defenders of the separation of the groups argued logically and successfully that students who spoke Crioulo at home should be taught in that language; that is, Crioulo should not be replaced by Portuguese as the students' primary language.

In the United States and Canada, a new variety of Portuguese has been created as a result of contact between Lusophones and Anglophones. This is a common linguistic and cultural occurrence whenever two culturally and linguistically different groups come into contact with each other. The Luso-American variety of Portuguese is actually a modified version of whatever original dialect the immigrant acquired. For instance, immigrants from the Azores continue to use the Insular variety of Portuguese while making minor adjustments in their speech patterns. Most modifications are the result of (1) creating new lexical items to refer to new cultural experiences; (2) borrowing English equivalents while at the same time using Portuguese phonol-

ogy; and (3) using some literal translations of commonly used English phrases and sayings. Some examples of Luso-American lexical items are shown in Table 10. (For a more complete listing with corresponding explanations, see Fagundes, 1974.)

Competing Dialects or Languages

Social conflicts resulting from competing dialects or languages have been minimal. The Portuguese language is almost universally spoken in Portugal and Brazil, and there are no competing languages within the national boundaries of these countries, as is the case of the former African possessions of Portugal. However, at the individual level, there do exist the usual value judgments made about the relative correctness of one variety of Portuguese over another. Examples of this phenomenon are Lisbon versus Coimbra speech, Continental versus Insular varieties, and western islands versus eastern islands in the Azores. These judgments are reflective of personal "folk" knowledge and opinions of languages and dialects and have no real linguistic basis, except, of course, in the case of Crioulo. (For details on the nature of language prejudice among speakers of Portuguese in the United States, see Macedo, 1981.)

Implications of the Language Variations

Given that the overwhelming majority of Portuguese Americans in the United States are of Insular background (that is, they come from

Table 10

Luso-American Speech Modifications

Luso-American version	*Standard Portuguese*	*English*
o pampo	*a bomba da pressão*	pump
o troque	*o camião*	truck
a trela	*o atrelado*	trailer
o mechim	*a máquina/automóvel*	machine/car
o tão	*a cidade, a vila, a freguesia*	town
o friuei	*a estrada*	freeway
a canaria	*a fábrica de conservas*	cannery
a estoa	*a loja, o mercado*	store
a marqueta	*o supermercado*	market
a frijoeira	*o frigorífico*	refrigerator
a televija	*a televisão/o televisor*	television
as taias	*os pneus*	tires
a bisnas	*o negócio*	business

Source: Adapted from Fagundes, 1974, pp. 9—12.

the Azores or Madeira islands), materials that reflect the cultural and linguistic heritage of those islands are most appropriate in the Portuguese bilingual classroom. Historically, materials used in Portuguese public schools were printed in Lisbon and, therefore, inordinately reflected mainland political, cultural, and linguistic priorities. Since the revolution of 1974, an effort has been made to decentralize school materials in order to represent regional and local realities more accurately. The effort being made in Portugal has come at a time when administrators of bilingual education programs serving Portuguese-American children have expressed the same concern and have developed new materials for that very reason. The use of materials made in Portugal is, however, widespread in the United States, in spite of their limitations, because of the quality of the commercial products available there.

Materials published in Brazil also are of high quality. But the Portuguese that is spoken and written in that country has significant phonological, orthographical, lexical, and syntactic features which tend initially to distract and sometimes frustrate children who are used to Insular and/or mainland speech patterns.

What follows is a series of examples illustrating some of the differences between Brazilian and European Portuguese.

Phonological Level

European Portuguese tends to maintain the unstressed vowels *a* and *e* closed, whereas Brazilian Portuguese leaves them open.

European Portuguese	*Brazilian Portuguese*
[*l'var*]	[*levar*]
[*b'ber*]	[*beber*]

European Portuguese tends to drop the pretonic and final *e*, but Brazilian Portuguese does not.

European Portuguese	*Brazilian Portuguese*
[*m'nino*]	[*menino*]
[*qu'rer*]	[*querer*]
[*gent'*]	[*genti*]
[*leit'*]	[*leiti*]

European Portuguese tends to palatalize more strongly the final *s* and *z* in such words as *rapaz, cais, casas* which, in most parts of Brazil, are not palatalized at all. Conversely, in certain areas of

Brazil, *t* and *d* before final *e* or any *i* are palatalized, but this is not the case in Portuguese spoken in Portugal. Examples: *dia* [jia], *apetite* [apecici], *ponte* [ponci].

Morphological Level

In Portugal a clear distinction is made orally and in writing between the verbal endings of the first person plural of regular *ar* verbs *(amos)* in the preterit tense. In Brazil they are pronounced as one.

Examples:	*Portugal*	*Brazil*
Present:	*andamos hoje*	*andamos hoje*
Preterit:	*andámos ontem*	*andamos ontem*

In Portugal *tu* is used most often where *você* would be appropriate in the Brazilian context. Of course, depending on the choice of pronouns, the corresponding verb will be either in the second or third person singular form. Note also the variation in spelling.

Example:	*Portugal*	*Brazil*
	Tu ficas ou vens connosco?	*Você fica ou vem conosco?*

Syntactic Level

In Portugal interrogative sentences can be stated in two forms: interrogative plus inversion of verb and pronoun or interrogative word plus *é que* plus the pronoun and verb in the declarative form. In Brazil interrogative words can be followed immediately by a declarative form.

Portugal	*Brazil*
Onde foste tu? OR *Onde é que tu foste?*	*Onde você foi?*
Como fizeste (tu) isso? OR *Como é que tu fizeste isso?*	*Como você fez isso?*
Quanto pagaste tu? OR *Quanto é que to pagaste?*	*Quanto você pagou?*

Lexical Level

Besides the obvious lexical items that distinguish the flora and fauna peculiar to Brazil, many other lexical items are used in one

country and not in the other. The comparisons with the differences found between the English of Great Britain and the United States is, perhaps, a valid comparison to be made.

Examples:	*Portugal*	*Brazil*
	fato	*terno*
	autocarro	*bonde*
	confusão (desordem)	*bagunça*

The implications of these distinctive features are apparent indeed for Portuguese bilingual instruction. In the lower grades particularly, a child may be sensitive to variations in pronunciation and structures used by teachers. Thus, the child may be confused and frustrated by the speech of teachers who use exclusively another variant than the one used at home and in the neighborhood. As a child progresses through the grades and acquires firm patterns of speech, the child's confusion is significantly reduced. In contexts such as those found in classrooms in the United States, where Portuguese has much less prestige than English, anything less than full acceptance of the child's variety of the home language will likely affect the child's self-concept and willingness to use Portuguese for classroom purposes.

Clearly, then, if teachers speak a variety of Portuguese different from that spoken by most of their students, several precautions might be taken. First of all, novice teachers who speak one variety of Portuguese should not be asked to perform tasks in another variety of Portuguese with which they are not familiar. For example, a novice teacher or aide who speaks Brazilian Portuguese should not be asked to use the language experience approach to literacy acquisition with Azorean students in the first grade. Secondly, all teachers and aides in a Portuguese bilingual program should be given orientation into the linguistic and cultural aspects of each dialect of Portuguese. Thirdly, when hiring teachers and aides, school district personnel and parent advisory committee members should screen candidates to ensure that they have positive attitudes toward all speakers of Portuguese and not just speakers of their own variety. Ultimately, the attitude of the teacher is a most important factor when there is a mismatch between the varieties of Portuguese used by the student and teacher. Negative attitudes on the part of teachers have been shown to inhibit Portuguese-speaking children—creating an environment where these children avoid using Portuguese and have no desire to expand their home language fluency. The results of studies done with language minority children indicate that regardless of the variety of the home language spoken by the teacher and the students, if the teacher is sensitive and accepting of the students' variety of primary language, then social,

Belém
Fortaleza
Recife
Salvador
Cuiabá
Brasília
Pacific Ocean
Rio de Janeiro
São Paulo
Pôrto Alegre
Atlantic Ocean
Brazil

cultural, or dialectal factors are less likely to inhibit language and academic development (Legarreta-Marcaida, 1981).

Ways in Which Portuguese Differs from English

From a linguistic viewpoint, especially in regard to surface features of a language (i.e., Cummins' basic interpersonal communicative skills), Portuguese and English are significantly different. In the next few pages, the nature of some phonological and morpho-syntactic differences will be described in detail. Additional linguistic systems are presented in Appendix D.

Knowledge of the differences between English and Portuguese will allow teachers of second languages to predict some of the errors second-language learners will make while they are acquiring either English or Portuguese; however, especially in the case of younger learners, it is not suggested that these differences would form the basis for a second-language curriculum. Recent research (Krashen, 1981) indicates that the first language of a student is not necessarily the *cause* of "interference" in the second language. What appears to happen is that second-language acquirers rely on first-language structures when equivalent structures in the second language have not yet been acquired (Dulay and Burt, 1974). Additionally, there is strong evidence that children and adults acquire second languages most efficiently in natural acquisition environments (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981). While students may learn second-language structures in a specific order, an order different from but related to the order of the first language, complete mastery of a specific structure is not a prerequisite for the acquisition of later learned structures. Speech errors are systematic and a natural part of second-language acquisition (Bailey, Madden, and Krashen, 1974; Dulay and Burt, 1974; Selinker, 1972; Selinker, Swain, and Dumas, 1975).

This handbook cannot possibly give a complete explanation of second-language acquisition theory; however, for additional information, the reader should refer to *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework* (1981). That document not only contains the theoretical rationale for various second-language instructional approaches, but also contains suggestions for classroom instructional activities and for integrating second-language acquisition with first-language developmental activities.

Phonological Features

In Portuguese the phonological system has 34 basic phonemes. No attempt is made here to deal with all of the phonetic variants possible in either language. It is pedagogically most useful to provide contrasts between meaningful sounds that exist in both languages; hence, the focus on the phonemic level.

Consonants. The Portuguese language has 21 consonant phonemes. Eighteen of these phonemes are similar to their equivalents in English.

Examples:	*Portuguese*	*Phoneme*	*English*
	pato	p	pat
	bola	b	bowl
	tarde	t	tan
	dedo	d	do
	casa	k	cat
	gato	g	game
	faca	f	fan
	vaso	v	vase
	sal	s	salt
	zero	z	zero
	chave	s	shoe
	jogo	z	measure
	mato	m	mail
	nave	n	navy
	rico	r	rich
	lata	l	late
	água	w	water
	sei	y	yes

Three consonant phonemes do not exist in English.

nh-voiced palatal nasal as in *manhã*
lh-voiced palatal liquid as in *mulher*
rr-voiced alveolar or velar vibrant as in *carro*

Vowels. Portuguese has 13 simple vowel phonemes, eight oral and five nasal. Of the oral vowels, five are considered open and three are closed.

Examples:		
	i as in *vi* (I saw)	a as in *da* (of the)
	ê as in *vê* (see)	o as in *pode* (he can)
	é as in *pé* (foot)	ô as in *pôde* (he was able to)
	á as in *pá* (shovel)	u as in *pude* (I was able to)

The accent marks (not always written) which identify vowel quality as well as stress are:

´ – open as in *lá, só, maré*
^ – closed as in *vê, pôde, lâmina*
~ – nasal as in *lã, manhã*

The Portuguese consonant and vowel phonemes with their corresponding descriptions are shown in Appendix D.

The English consonant phonemes not found in Portuguese are as follows:

hw	voiceless bilabial fricative	as in **which**
h	voiceless aspirant	as in **hat**
θ	voiceless dental fricative	as in **three**
ð	voiced dental fricative	as in **there**
ɛ	voiceless palatal affricate	as in **church**
ʒ	voiced palatal affricate	as in **judge**
ŋ	voiced velar nasal	as in **song**
r	voiced lateral	as in **father**

Several significant features of English vowels that speakers of Portuguese find difficult are:

1. The tendency to use the schwa sound for vowels in unstressed positions where Portuguese vowels are distinct, whether stressed or unstressed. When the English speaker uses the same schwa sound for the vowels set in boldface in the following examples, the Portuguese speaker sometimes overcorrects and gives each vowel its full value.

   Examples: animal, parcel, stencil, pistol, awful

2. The tendency of speakers of Portuguese to glide the extreme vowels. Speakers of Portuguese frequently will confuse certain long and short vowels.

   Examples:

i-iy	as in **bit**	**beat**	u-uw	as in **look**	**Luke**
	it	**eat**		**pull**	**pool**
	live	**leave**		**full**	**fool**

3. The Portuguese tendency to not make the English glide *ow*, which is then confused with ɔ as in *bought*.

   Examples:

cot	**coat**
bond	**boned**
sock	**soak**

4. The Portuguese tendency to pronounce æ and ɔ as *a* as well as schwa as either *á* or *ó*. These lead to confusion in distinguishing minimal pairs, such as:

sang	sung	man	men	tap	top
dam	dumb	bad	bed	hat	hot
mad	mud	past	pest	map	mop

Morpho-syntactic Features

Although the Portuguese verb system does employ compound verbs as does English, the auxiliary verb of English quite often appears in Portuguese as a morphological feature.

Examples:	*Portuguese*	*English*
	Falo	I do speak. (I speak.)
	Falava	I was speaking.
	Falei	I did speak.
	Falarei	I will speak.
	Falaria	I would speak.
	Foste?	Did you go?
	Não foste?	Didn't you go?

The tendency is to use a temporal or aspect marker of some kind to replace the illusive auxiliary. Therefore, the formation and word order of these tenses in the various declarative, interrogative, and negative forms tend to overwhelm the Portuguese speaker initially in much the same way as English speakers struggle at first to assimilate all the morphological variants of Portuguese verbs.

Other common problems characteristic of the transfer from Portuguese to English are (1) English verbs when followed by a preposition or adverb; (2) the use of the possessive adjective with parts of the body; (3) the complex formation of English plurals, especially when confused with the possessive markers (for example, man, men, man's, pilot, pilots, pilot's); and (4) the differing stress patterns of cognate words where one would expect the same solution.

At the level of reading skill development (decoding), the following observations may illustrate some special problems in transfer from Portuguese to English (in other areas specific emphasis might be most profitable):

1. In English many words or syllables have the structures VC or CVC (C = consonant, V = vowel).

   Examples: at, an, ax, cap, fog, few, sob

In Portuguese only *m, s, z, l, r* can appear finally.

Examples: *sim, casas, paz, sal, por*

2. In English many words have the structures VCC and CVCC.

   Examples: add, egg, pass, tell

   This type of syllable does not exist in Portuguese.

3. Portuguese and English share the same initial blends except for *dw* as in dwarf and *tw* as in twin. All combinations with *s* as the first element, as in spin or street, do not constitute blends in Portuguese since an initial *e* precedes the group and a separation occurs between the consonants. Thus, the syllabication of *escola* would be es-co-la; *sk* does not exist at all. Portuguese does not have any final blends. English examples would be cold, lift, second.
4. Of the English digraphs, only *ch* exists in Portuguese. It is sounded as a voiceless palatal fricative and not as an affricate.
5. In English many words and syllables have the structures CCCV, CCCVC, CVCCC, and VCCC.

   Examples: three, shrimp, bunch, prompt, itch

   Such structures do not exist in Portuguese as separate syllables.

6. English has silent consonants as the initial or second member of a group. Portuguese has only an initial *h* present in certain words for historical reasons. It has no phonological value.

   Examples: should, calm, knife, pneumonia, psyche, wrath, sign, debt, half

Characteristics of the Writing System

Portuguese uses the Roman alphabetic writing system with the same symbols as English except for *k, w,* and *y*. These three letters are used mainly in foreign words, proper names, and international symbols.

Examples: Kubitschek, watt, kilo, Yolanda

The 23 symbols of the Portuguese writing system along with a writing sample of the Portuguese language are presented in Figure 1.

In addition, there are three written accents which, generally speaking, indicate vowel quality and stress. They are the acute (´), the circumflex (^), and the nasal (~) accents. The grave (`) accent, which existed for many years as an indicator of the shift in a word from primary to secondary stress when a suffix was added (for example, *só, sòmente, fácil, fàcilmente*), is no longer used for this purpose. The grave accent continues to be used to identify words that are contracted with a preposition (for example, *às dez horas, ir àquele sítio*).

The Portuguese Alphabet

A *a*	I *i*	R *erre*
B *be*	J *jota*	S *esse*
C *ce*	L *ele*	T *te*
D *de*	M *eme*	U *u*
E *e*	N *ene*	V *ve*
F *efe*	O *o*	X *xis*
G *ge*	P *pe*	Z *ze*
H *aga*	Q *que*	

Portuguese Writing Sample

Portugal e Brasil

Nós brasileiros, melhor do que ninguém, podemos falar sôbre Portugal e portuguêses. Pois é verdade que no tempo das suas descobertas os navegadores portuguêses foram donos de terras em todos os continentes; mas foi no Brasil que ficou realmente a marca do gênio português.

Eram êles um povo pequeno, que vivia num pequeno país. E assim mesmo tomaram posse do nosso imenso território e o povoaram. Deram-nos a sua língua, os seus costumes e a sua religião. Lutavam às vêzes com os índios, mas preferiam conviver em paz com êles, juntos fundando novas famílias, povoações e cidades.

Na verdade nós somos o que o português nos fêz. No século passado, quando começaram a chegar ao Brasil as grandes ondas de emigrantes italianos, alemães, árabes, etc., os portuguêses já estavam aqui trabalhando sòzinhos há mais de trezentos anos. O Brasil já tinha então a sua nacionalidade própria, e não mudou mais. Os recémchegados é que mudaram e foram assimilados.

Fiéis à nossa formação pacífica, somos um povo pacífico. Fizemos a independência, a abolição da escravatura, a república, sem guerra; e fazemos as nossas revoluções quase sem luta ou sem derramar sangue de irmãos. Procurando vencer as dificuldades por meio de entendimentos, e não lutando. E podemos dizer que êsse amor à compreensão e à paz é a melhor herança que Portugal nos deixou.

Source: Ellison and others, 1971, p. 322.

Figure 1. The Portuguese alphabet and a sample of Portuguese writing

A cedilla (ɔ) indicates that a *c* normally pronounced as *k* should be pronounced as *s* (for example, *França* versus *franca*).

The Portuguese writing system is highly phonetic, with few symbols having more than one equivalent. A breakdown of the phoneme/grapheme correspondence is as follows:

Consonants

1. One-to-one correspondence
   p, b, t, d, f, v, l, lh, nh, m, n, r
2. w - u as in *igual*
   y - i as in *feito*
3. rr - rr as in *carro*
   r as in *rico*
4. k - c + a as in *casa*, c + o as in *circo*, c + u as in *cubo*
   qu as in *quebrar*
   g - g + a as in *garrafa*, g + o as in *gota*, g + u as in *gula*
5. s - ch as in *chegar*
   x as in *xícara*
   s as in *deste*
   z - g + i as in *gigante*, g + e as in *gelar*
   j as in *jejum*
   s as in *desde*
   x as in *extra*
6. z - s as in *casa*
   z as in *beleza*
   x as in *exame*
   s - s as in *saber*
   ss as in *posso*
   ç as in *França*
   x as in *próximo*
   c + i as in *circo*, c + e as in *cesto*

Vowels

1. oral	*i - i sai*	*- í saí*	*- e estudar*
	ê - e parede	*- ê pêssego*	
	é - e pedra	*- é pé*	
	â - a parar	*- â câmara*	
	á - a barro	*- á já*	
	ó - o pode	*- ó pó*	
	ô - o povo	*- ô pôde*	
	u - u azul	*- ú saúde*	*- o tudo*
2. nasal	*i - im impossível*	*- in infeliz*	
	e - em tempo	*- en entrar*	
	a - am ambulância	*- an andar*	*- ã lã*
	o - om ombro	*- on ontem*	
	u - um jejum	*- un juntar*	

Portuguese children are initially taught to read and write at about six or seven years of age, about the same time other children in most countries of Europe using the Roman alphabetic writing system begin literacy instruction. Upper- and lower-case letters are used, and there is a definite difference between cursive and the printed letter.

Given the relative efficiency of the phoneme/grapheme correspondence in Portuguese, children normally complete the decoding process in one year of schooling, usually the second year, since the first is dedicated to prereading activities.

Cultural Patterns in Portuguese

The most important initial behavior related to language use is the establishment of levels of respect between speakers. Children address their superiors in age and social station with the third person singular of the verb plus their name or title. This reflects social deference, politeness, and respect. Teachers, in turn, use the familiar *tu* form with children. Among adults, the *tu* form is used only when a relationship of collegiality is understood to exist. Members of a family use this form.

Portuguese immigrant children expect to encounter more formal relationships between teachers and students in the school than they normally find in the United States. Thus, they tend to be more reserved and, in a desire to be polite, have a hard time saying "no" to any authority figure. By the same token, when offered something, their initial response is likely to be "no," and they will only accept after some coaxing occurs. Portuguese children also may tend to appear passive and docile because they ask few questions and do not disagree with the teacher since it would appear to be disrespectful. They are taught that the body of information the teacher has to transmit to them is more important than their own opinions. They will therefore be inclined to perceive as a waste of time any discussions in which the students are encouraged to exchange opinions.

Chapter IV

Recommended Instructional and Curricular Strategies for Portuguese Language Development

In the preceding chapters of this handbook, the cultural, social, and linguistic characteristics of Portuguese-speaking students were described. On the basis of these characteristics and recent research findings on the schooling of language minority students, the curricular and instructional strategies for Portuguese language development are examined within the context of public education in the United States. Also discussed is the issue of transferability of skills, literacy acquisition, and instructional strategies specific to these areas. Finally, the concern as to when and how English (both oral and written) should be taught is addressed.

Transference of Literacy Skills

A strong case can be made that cognitive and academic language skills learned in and through Portuguese can be brought to bear on the task of literacy acquisition in English (Cummins, 1981). Briefly, researchers and practitioners of bilingual education have found that students who learn to read well in their first language successfully transfer many reading skills to English (Thonis, 1981; Genesee, 1980). In addition, through more fully developed native language literacy, students have learned to read the second language more efficiently (Modiano, 1974) and with higher attainment eventually (Santiago and Guzman, 1977; Dank and McEachern, 1979). Clearly, most literacy skills are transferable or applicable universally. These include most readiness skills, some decoding skills, and higher-level skills such as comprehension, literary, and study skills. Thus, the transferable skills, for the most part, are those fundamental skills that can be equated with cognitive/academic language proficiency (Cummins, 1981). The skills that may not transfer deal with certain language-specific characteristics such as phonology, morphology, and syntactical patterns. The following examples are intended to be representative and not exhaustive of skills that form part of what Cummins refers to as the common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 1981):

1. *Readiness skills.* Almost total transferability occurs from Portuguese to English in this area. Traditional procedures usually call for the development of visual, auditory, sensorimotor, oral lan-

guage, and conceptual development skills as well as social and psychological readiness. Specific examples include (1) eye-hand coordination; (2) attention to detail; (3) categorization; and (4) seriation.

2. *Decoding skills.* The recognition of letter shapes, both upper and lower case, is transferable as are most single consonants, vowels, and blends. Even consonants with variable pronunciation, such as *c* and *g*, transfer from Portuguese to English since the phenomenon occurs similarly in both languages. The sensitivity to parts of speech and their functions, morphological features (for example, number, verb inflections, and the use of affixes), is also shared. Syllable division, the use of contractions, and compound words are applicable to both languages.
3. *Comprehension skills.* The development of a consciousness for word categories, contextual clues to determine meaning, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, and homographs is necessary only once in a child's reading experience. This is also true of the awareness of the functions of punctuation and of the need to respond in complete sentences. The skills acquired in learning to sequence events of a story, identifying its parts and recognizing cause and effect relationships, distinguishing between facts and inferences, predicting outcomes, and drawing conclusions are all transferred universally.
4. *Literary skills.* Other important reading skills, such as the understanding of character traits, setting, plot, point of view, and stylistic features (for example, the use of similes, metaphors, irony, or satire), also transfer to English contexts.
5. *Study skills.* The organizing and sequencing of information are sufficiently similar in both languages as to require only minimal adaptations. Examples of this include (a) alphabetizing skills; (b) dictionary use; and (c) ability to understand the functions of tables of contents, indices, graphs, diagrams, and bibliographies.

Because of the efficiency of the Portuguese language in phoneme/grapheme correspondence, Portuguese-speaking students master decoding skills rapidly and thus start critical reading earlier than students in English reading programs. More time is available for the development of comprehension skills and for the appreciation of literature. Therefore, literate students (independent readers in Portuguese) should have little difficulty in critical reading once they can decode the English text. Given the universality of fundamental skills development in reading and the significant commonalities between language-specific features of Portuguese and English, a Portuguese-speaking student who is proficient in reading the first language can and will apply acquired skills to English. Abundant evidence is available to show that for *many* language minority children, second-

language literacy (English) is much more efficiently developed by primary-language instruction than by a second-language-only approach (Krashen, 1981).

Effects of Primary-Language Literacy on Achievement

Recent research findings have demonstrated the positive effects of primary-language literacy on the academic achievement of language minority students (see *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework,* 1981). A basic notion suggested by recent research is that primary-language reading proficiency is a stable predictor for future English reading proficiency. This was demonstrated in a research project at University of California at Los Angeles with Spanish-speaking students (Fischer and Cabello, 1978). Similar results were found in a well-known study of Finnish immigrant children in Sweden (Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa, 1976). In that study it was systematically observed that the greater the level of academic language proficiency children had in Finnish (primary language), the more successful they were in acquiring similar skills in Swedish (second language). In fact, these students approached and often surpassed the norms of native speakers of Swedish when tested in Swedish even though they had less exposure to that language.

A study on the effectiveness of bilingual education for Navajo children in New Mexico (Rosier and Holm, 1980) verified that students who had not been exposed to English reading until they were reading well in Navajo did far better in English reading than did students enrolled in monolingual English programs with well-established ESL curricula. Specifically, students in the bilingual program at the sixth-grade level scored two grade-level-equivalent years higher than the control group and even performed one month above the national norm in English, even though as much as 80 percent of the instructional time in kindergarten and grades one and two and 20 percent in grades three through six were devoted to study through Navajo.

Although very little research has been done specifically with Portuguese-speaking students, there is no reason to believe that the results of the development of Portuguese literacy among Portuguese-speaking students would be any different from that indicated by recent research concerning other language minority groups. Some ESEA, Title VII, evaluation reports show positive effects of Portuguese literacy on the achievement of Portuguese-speaking students in the United States. Results of one such evaluation indicated the following:

> Portuguese-speaking children, identified as having average or above-average language competencies, achieved the criterion of an average raw score equivalent to the fiftieth percentile in mathematics and science. In

fact, these students scored well above the criterion level. Portuguese-speaking children identified as having below-average language competencies, however, did not achieve the criterion of an average raw score equivalent to the thirty-fifth percentile. ("Evaluation of the Fall River Middle School," 1973, p. 119)

Results of another evaluation of a Portuguese bilingual program indicated that students at all grade levels made equivalent gains when compared to national norms (DiBiasio and Sullivan, 1971).

Informal reports by Lusophone educators throughout California also point to the fact that, in most cases, achievement in Portuguese literacy correlates highly with the level of general school achievement experienced by Portuguese-speaking students. These educators report many cases of recently arrived Portuguese-speaking immigrant students who come to school with well-developed literacy skills in Portuguese as a result of schooling in the home country and who achieve very well in English.

Readiness Skills for Learning to Read Portuguese

The readiness skills for learning to read Portuguese are basically the same as English or any other language with an alphabetic writing system. They involve the basic aspects of the learner's development: physical growth, mental maturity, emotional stability, and social adjustment. Specifically, traditional reading readiness skills for learning to read Portuguese include the following six categories of skills:

1. *Visual skills.* Differentiation of geometric shapes, sizes, colors, and the ability to distinguish left to right and top to bottom progression on printed pages. This also involves the recognition of the written symbols of Portuguese and appropriate diacritical marks.
2. *Auditory skills.* Differentiation of vowel and consonant phonemes with regard to position (initial, medial, or final), the various combinations of vowels and consonants that constitute syllables, and the identification of rhyming words.
3. *Sensorimotor skills.* Development of fine and gross motor activities, such as the capacity to reproduce geometric shapes and letters, completion of partial drawings, connecting dots, and cutting shapes according to a pattern.
4. *Oral language development:* Development of the following four areas: (1) phonology—control of all the meaningful sounds of the language; (2) vocabulary—control of a significant number of common words; (3) syntax—control of basic language structures, especially in the indicative (present, imperfect, and preterit) and imperative moods; and (4) language use/language functions—general control of basic communication strategies.

5. *Concept development.* Familiarity with words and concepts related to personal environment, travel experiences in the community and beyond, knowledge of nursery rhymes and traditional stories, and practice in "negotiating meaning" (Wells, 1979).
6. *Motivation for reading.* Capacity to enjoy picture books, to listen to stories that are read, and to read to others. The purpose of reading may be functional (learning how to do something, obtaining information, gaining understanding of a concept or person, and proving a point) or simply enjoyment (satisfying curiosity and experiencing new things vicariously). Development of skills in this category is especially important since there may be a need to establish models for the development of good reading habits in Portuguese-speaking households. The school setting, in some cases, may provide the major stimulus for the motivation to read. Consequently, the teacher should encourage parents to acquire appropriate reading materials for their children. Topics such as games, hobbies, theme books of current interest, animal stories, and adventure stories are especially appropriate.

Instruction in Reading Portuguese

The two basic approaches used in the teaching of Portuguese reading are the same as those used for any other alphabetic writing system—"analytic" and "synthetic."

The synthetic approaches, which go from parts (letters) to whole words, include three methods:

1. *Phonic (fonético).* In the phonic method the students learn all the sounds associated with a given letter. Words are composed of individual sounds that can be recombined into many words. Words are joined to make sentences.
2. *Alphabetic (alfabético).* In the alphabetic method the students learn the names of the letters and follow the sequence of the letters of the alphabet. The students are taught how vowels and consonants are joined to create syllables and how various syllables form words.
3. *Syllabic (silábico).* The syllabic method is based on the decoding of syllables, such as *má, mé, mi, mó, mu.* Instruction begins with the vowels and the simple consonants.

The analytic approaches, which go from whole words to parts (letters) that combine to make words, include the following methods:

1. *Global.* The global method is based on the association of whole words and their representations. The students are taught to rec-

ognize whole words and sentences without analysis of individual letters and syllables The teacher labels objects throughout the classroom for the students to see and read.

2. *Generative word (palavra generadora).* The generative word approach is based on whole words of immediate significance to the student or group. Initially, this method was used in adult literacy programs. The teacher gives the class whole words, and the students repeat and memorize them. The students have the opportunity to analyze the relationships between sounds and symbols and symbols and words.

Some educators prefer to use an eclectic method, which is simply a combination of the most efficient features of any or all of the above methods. Care should be exercised, however, so that a coherent, well-articulated whole is formed and includes all the necessary elements in an appropriate sequence.

Since the sound-symbol correspondence of Portuguese is quite efficient, any of the synthetic approaches tend to be very effective in the teaching of decoding skills. Most publishers of reading materials in Portugal and Brazil have favored this approach. In California's bilingual programs, students are now using materials such as *Botão de Rosa, Começando, Continuando, Pintaínho,* and *Saber Ler,* which are synthetic in their approach. (For further information on reading materials, see Appendix B.) However, the National Portuguese Curriculum Materials Development Center at Brown University uses both the analytic and synthetic approaches and emphasizes comprehension skills in its newest materials.

Instruction in Writing Portuguese

The teaching of Portuguese writing is facilitated greatly by the fact that both mechanical and conceptual skills are basically the same in Portuguese as in English. In addition to the alphabet, attention must be focused on the diacritical marks used in Portuguese. There are four marks: acute accent (´), grave accent (`), circumflex (^), and tilde (~). Whichever one is used depends on the quality of the vowel and the syllable stressed. Portuguese uses a cedilla (ɔ) to indicate that a letter *c* in the environment of a back vowel (a, o, u) is to be pronounced as *s* and not *k*.

A Portuguese language skills framework for writing should consist of at least four basic skills areas. The following is a brief discussion of each of the four essential areas:

1. *Handwriting.* This stage of prewriting includes the ability to recognize and write the letters of the alphabet and practice penmanship. Tracing and copying are the most common activities. Cursive writing is traditionally taught first in Portuguese.

Learning of the printed forms comes later. This is, of course, in sharp contrast to current practices in schools in the United States.

2. *Spelling.* Because of the efficient sound-symbol correspondence in Portuguese, minimal attention is given to spelling activities (making spelling lists and conducting spelling bees) and then only in relation to the few symbols that do not have one-to-one correspondence. Examples of these are: c in cir*c*o; g in gi*g*ante; s in ca*s*a and *s*aber; x in e*x*ame, e*x*tra, and pró*x*imo; h in *h*omem. Whatever attention is dedicated to spelling is normally to learn the most common combinations of syllables. The formation of prefixes and suffixes also requires some study.
3. *Mechanics.* The three main areas of concern are (1) capitalization of names, months, cities, states, titles, and so forth; (2) use of punctuation marks in different kinds of sentences, in narratives, and in letters; and (3) development of format skills in personal and business letter writing.
4. *Discourse.* Literary writing skills such as the process of proceeding in an orderly manner through a sequence of ideas or activities are examples of discourse skills that must be addressed. The two main categories of discourse include (1) controlled-writing situations, such as selecting missing words in sentences (cloze procedures), taking dictation, writing stories after listening, and describing pictures; and (2) free-writing situations, such as planning and organizing a composition, elaborating paragraphs, and proofreading and editing drafts.

Necessary resources include audiovisual aids to stimulate the development of ideas, texts and workbooks for the learning and practice of writing skills, and, most importantly, a knowledgeable and well-trained staff. Most of the reading materials mentioned earlier, such as *Botão de Rosa, Saber Ler,* and *Pintaínho,* are accompanied by workbooks that foster written expression using the reading material as a point of departure.

Introduction of Oral English Instruction

Most language minority students benefit from oral English language instruction as soon as they enter school. The students should be ready to develop their basic communicative skills in English. The critical element in school contexts is to design instructional programs for language minority students so that exposure to English results in the efficient acquisition of basic communicative competence without interference with normal cognitive/academic, subject-matter, and affective development. Instructional environments vary in the degree to which they promote or inhibit this process among language minority students.

In school situations language minority students are exposed to English in basically four ways: (1) submersion classes; (2) grammar-based English as a second language (ESL); (3) communicative-based ESL; and (4) sheltered English classes (see the Glossary). Submersion classes are situations in which teachers speak in a native speaker-to-native speaker register as if all of the students in the class were native speakers of English. Grammar-based ESL classes focus on phonology and syntax and emphasize learning language rules through inductive (grammar-translation) or deductive (audiolingual or cognitive code) methods. Communicative-based ESL, by contrast, places emphasis on language use and language functions. This type of instruction focuses on basic communicative competence, rather than learning grammar rules. Sheltered English approaches deliver subject matter in the second language. In these situations second-language (L_2) acquirers usually are grouped together, special materials are provided, and students are allowed to speak in their primary language (L_1). However, the teacher always models L_2 native speaker or near-native speaker speech. Also, a native speaker-to-nonnative speaker register (similar to "motherese" or "foreigner talk") is used by the teacher. The research suggests that communicative-based ESL and sheltered English instruction effectively promote the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English. Grammar-based ESL and submersion classes have been found to be less effective in promoting such skills (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981).

Also, grammar-based ESL instruction, at best, leads to the development of the language monitor (Krashen, 1981). The monitor assists L_2 learners in the production of grammatically accurate utterances. However, several conditions must exist before individuals can efficiently use the monitor. First, the task must be focused on language forms in some way (for example, a grammar test). Second, the learner previously must have incorporated the desired rule and be able to recognize the appropriateness of the specific rule for the specific structure desired. Finally, the speaker needs sufficient time to retrieve the rule, adapt it to the speech situation, and use it correctly in producing the utterance. These conditions are not available to individuals in most normal speech situations.

Submersion environments are even less effective than grammar-based ESL, because during submersion lessons language minority students do not comprehend much of what is being said. Stephen Krashen states that the critical element of "comprehensible input" is i + 1. The *i* is what the student can already comprehend in the L_2. The *+1* is the additional input made comprehensible by a variety of strategies and techniques (Krashen, 1981). In submersion classes, however, the provision of i + 1 is only infrequently achieved. Since most of the input is directed toward native English speakers, the language minor-

ity students are exposed to English input at incomprehensible levels of $i + 2$, $i + 3$, and $i + n$. Considerable research indicates that submersion situations effectively promote neither the development of basic interpersonal communicative skills nor cognitive/academic language proficiency among language minority students (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981).

According to some recent second-language acquisition studies (Krashen, 1981; Terrell, 1981), the attainment of basic communication skills in a second language is determined by the amount of "comprehensible second-language" input a student receives under favorable conditions. Communicative-based ESL and sheltered English situations provide students with large amounts of such input under optimal conditions. Submersion environments and grammar-based ESL situations provide students with only limited amounts of "comprehensible input" (especially in the initial stages) under conditions considerably less favorable for second-language acquisition.

Unless there are important psycho-educational reasons, such as recent traumatic experiences or special learning disabilities, language minority students will benefit from exposure to English in communicative-based ESL and sheltered English situations. This will allow the students to acquire English and will not necessarily interfere with normal cognitive/academic development or primary-language development if the program also provides adequate instruction in these areas.

On the other hand, grammar-based ESL and submersion environments may be counterproductive to English acquisition. First, young children and older children who have not experienced normal cognitive/academic development probably do not have their cognitive processes developed enough to assimilate the complex and decontextualized language that characterizes grammar-based ESL and submersion classes. Additionally, in some cases, so much attention is placed on speaking only in grammatically correct utterances that students become inhibited.

In summary, substantial research evidence suggests that submersion environments and grammar-based ESL (audiolingual, cognitive code, and grammar translation) should not be provided to language minority students until they attain sufficient levels of basic interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive/academic language proficiency to benefit from such instructional contexts. Communicative-based ESL (for example, the natural approach) and sheltered English classes are effective in promoting the development of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English for students at any age and developmental or academic level, except for those children who have diagnosed physical disabilities or who are suffering from some psychological trauma.

Introduction of Formal Reading Instruction

There are basically four choices in organizing a reading program in bilingual contexts. Classical bilingual education programs usually begin literacy instruction in Portuguese and then, at a determined stage, introduce English language reading instruction. Some compensatory bilingual programs provide simultaneous instruction in both the primary language (L_1) and the second language (L_2). Immersion programs are organized to initiate literacy in the L_2 and then to introduce the L_1. Finally, in ESL-only programs, literacy instruction is provided only in English. In this section each of these approaches will be described and evaluated in terms of possible outcomes for most Luso-American students.

L_1 Followed by L_2

When sufficient human and material resources are available and parental support is present, the L_1 reading approach has proved to be effective (Cummins, 1981). In the most successful programs, students are given full L_1 literacy instruction in kindergarten and grades one through three. At approximately the third-grade level, if a student has made normal reading progress, formal English reading is introduced. Reading instruction in L_1 is continued until at least the sixth-grade level (Rosier and Holm, 1980; Cummins, 1981). This is critical since the effects of L_1 reading instruction are cumulative, showing the best results after five to seven years (Cummins, 1981). Many studies indicate that proficient bilingual and biliterate students have definite advantages over other language minority students and even over monolingual majority students (Cummins, 1981; Kessler and Quinn, 1980; *Evaluation of California's Educational Services,* 1981).

L_1 and L_2 Simultaneously

In some bilingual programs, usually those developed in a compensatory mode, reading instruction in L_1 and L_2 is presented to limited- and non-English-speaking students simultaneously. If organized carefully and if the proper skills sequence is respected for each language, there is an increasing amount of evidence that this type of reading program can be effective (*Evaluation of California's Educational Services,* 1981; Krashen, 1981). Previously, some educators predicted cognitive confusion would result from such sequencing. Nevertheless, while such programs may sometimes be effective, they are not necessarily efficient. Much instructional time is wasted by presenting the same or equivalent skills in both languages, and duplicate staff and materials are required. These allocations are probably unnecessary in light of the notion of the common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 1981). Most of the student's cognitive/academic language proficiency in the L_1 can be brought to bear on the task of

L_2 reading. Students are able to reach high levels of L_2 literacy without study of basic L_2 literacy skills, because most of these skills have already been acquired in the L_1.

Theoretically, there may be one type of language minority student for which simultaneous reading instruction may be a useful option. In some cases students are given initial reading instruction in English when L_1 literacy would have been the preferred offering. After several years of English reading, many of these students fall behind academically. Educators are apprehensive about switching such students to an all L_1 reading program to rectify the problem. Many sociocultural and pedagogical factors dictate special treatment for these students. Reading in the L_1 could be introduced while continuing with a modified form of the English reading program.

L_2 Followed by L_1

Immersion programs in French for native English-speaking students have been in operation in Canada for more than a decade. Several experimental immersion programs also have been conducted in the United States. In such programs, all initial instruction, including literacy, is given through the L_2. In the second or third grade, L_1 language arts are added to the curriculum. An enormous amount of research has shown that most students in French immersion programs achieve high levels of literacy in both languages (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981; Genesee, 1980). Even though students were provided with most of their instruction in French, once English language arts were added to the curriculum, the students quickly caught up to their monolingually schooled peers. In fact, the students in the immersion program did as well in English reading as did the students in English-only programs (Genesee, 1980). In addition, of course, the students had the added benefit of French proficiency.

One should note that immersion programs are especially designed so that majority students acquire a second language while at the same time experiencing normal academic and L_1 development. These students, in general, attain a level of proficient bilingualism. Similar programs have not yet been attempted with minority students. Although such programs are theoretically possible, serious pedagogical, linguistic, and psychosocial problems may be encountered when immersion approaches are applied to minority contexts (Lambert, 1982).

L_2 Only

For a variety of reasons—philosophical position, desires of some students and parents, or lack of educational resources—some school districts continue to provide language minority students with English-only, submersion-type reading instruction. Fortunately, most pro-

grams provide at least oral ESL instruction; nevertheless, few recognized ESL (initial) literacy curricula are available and few staff members are trained in this approach. Unfortunately, most of the activities in the ESL program tend to be remedial versions of the same activities used with native speakers of English. The failure of submersion and ESL-only programs is well documented in the literature (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981).

Under the best circumstances within the L_2-only option, formal English reading instruction should be delayed until language minority students have acquired some basic interpersonal communicative skills in English. Once an oral language base in English is established, students will be better able to assimilate the more cognitively demanding concepts associated with literacy. Educators should be aware, however, that since L_1 instruction is not addressed, a subtractive form of bilingualism probably will result for most students.

Clearly, L_2-only reading instruction is not a recommended option. However, should resources not be available or should parents decline an L_1 approach, then the only alternative may be an instructional program conducted entirely in English. Under these circumstances the following suggestions are given:

1. Provide students with ample amounts of "comprehensible second-language input" in English for the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills.
2. Provide cognitive/academic language development through sheltered English strategies.
3. Group second-language acquirers apart from native speakers for some oral language and initial literacy instruction in English so that they may benefit from communicative-based ESL and sheltered English strategies.
4. Sequence instruction appropriately so that students will not be introduced to new concepts until they have acquired the appropriate linguistic and academic background sufficient to assimilate more complex skills.
5. Provide interested parents with materials and instructions to carry out language tasks at home in Portuguese. Teachers should encourage these parents to focus on those tasks that will better prepare their children for the academic requirements of school.

In summary, full bilingual education programs and immersion programs appear to be two instructional approaches which have a substantial amount of research evidence to support their effectiveness. The positive reports on these programs are limited, however, to situations in which the programs are operated in well-defined ways, with specific types of students and under certain conditions. By contrast,

no pattern of success has been reported for submersion and ESL-only programs, except for those students who enter the educational system in the United States at or after the age of puberty and who previously have acquired high levels of academic and communicative proficiency in the mother tongue. Where the various approaches have been most effective, language minority students have attained high levels of cognitive/academic language proficiency; that is, high levels of English academic achievement and literacy, at no cost to native language development.

Development of Proficiency in Portuguese

By age five or six, all children, except those who are severely retarded or aphasic, acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in their home language. For Luso-American and Portuguese-speaking immigrant children, this means that when they enter school, they already have developed basic communicative skills in Portuguese. If the family continues to use Portuguese in the home or if the student is exposed to Portuguese in other environments, basic communicative proficiency is possible.

On the other hand, unless the child is exposed to some type of formal instruction in Portuguese, it is unlikely that the child will develop cognitive/academic language proficiency through that language (Cummins, 1981). Cognitive/academic language skills are those skills associated with literacy and general school achievement (Cummins, 1981). On the basis of considerable research on instruction in bilingual contexts, cognitive/academic language proficiency in the primary language was found to assist language minority students in (1) development of similar cognitive/academic skills in English; (2) acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English; (3) maintenance and development of subject-matter knowledge and skills (for example, mathematics, science, and social studies); and (4) maintenance and development of a positive self-concept and a positive adjustment to both minority and majority cultures. Consequently, for language minority students, most efforts at language development in Portuguese should be directed at the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency; that is, literacy and academic subject matter. This will allow students to avoid the negative effects of subtractive bilingualism and enjoy the benefits of proficient bilingualism. Cognitive/academic language proficiency through Portuguese can be promoted in several contexts. The home, the school, and the community are all appropriate settings for this development.

Parents and other relatives should be encouraged to work with preschool- and school-age children in a variety of activities that aid children in meeting the academic challenges of school (Wells, 1979). Unfortunately, many Portuguese-American families have taken steps

to disassociate themselves from their Portuguese language heritage (Williams, 1982). For instance, one researcher commented in 1949:

> Many Portuguese immigrants and their children have leaned toward discarding the Portuguese language, [not] only to conceal their background as a means of overcoming social prejudices, but also in order to fulfill what they consider a patriotic duty (Pap, p. 25, as quoted in Williams, 1982, p. 86).

In the past teachers often discouraged the use of Portuguese in the home under the misconception that such use might be harmful. To the contrary, several studies indicate that certain types of Portuguese language use in the home actually increases the children's ability to cope with academic studies at school (Cummins, 1981). These recent studies suggest that the most critical features of home language use are the quality and amount of interaction between adults and children.

In order for parents and other relatives to engage in productive interaction with children, they must have high levels of proficiency in the language chosen for the interaction. The language they choose in most cases will be the minority language. The adults and older siblings in the home can be certain that minority language use will not interfere with English language development. To the contrary, such practices will probably result in higher levels of English attainment (Cummins, 1981). Some activities in the minority language are more effective than others in promoting this outcome. The key element appears to be the "negotiation of meaning" with children (Wells, 1979). Through this process, communication is made comprehensible to children. Telling stories, playing games, reciting poems, singing songs, and reading to children are examples of activities that can be used for this purpose. Assisting students with homework is another. Interaction of this type in the minority language will contribute to the general academic success of language minority students.

The school can promote cognitive/academic language proficiency development in Portuguese by providing students with a well-organized prereading and reading program which develops skills to at least the sixth-grade level. In addition, an equally important component is the provision of subject matter in Portuguese. At least one topic area should be selected, with Portuguese as the medium of instruction. Schools also can assist by providing students with supplementary reading material in the primary language. This allows students the opportunity to practice reading skills and become motivated about reading in general and reading in Portuguese in particular. Additionally, the school can strengthen the home-school link by sending home materials in Portuguese (materials that would be used by parents with their children) and by showing parents how they can best support their children's language development (Thonis, 1981).

Although the school is rarely directly involved in many types of community activities, school personnel are in a position to influence local community leaders in designing and implementing many activities for children. Resource teachers and school administrators should promote community activities that potentially can develop Portuguese language skills in minority children. In the case of the Portuguese-speaking community, some activities might include (1) afternoon and Saturday classes in the Portuguese language and culture; (2) catechism classes in Portuguese; (3) a "Página da Criança" or "Hora da Criança" in Portuguese language newspapers and on Portuguese language radio and television broadcasts, respectively; and (4) language and cultural activities sponsored by the various fraternal, religious, and educational organizations in the Lusophone community (Mackey, 1981).

For Luso-American students with a home language of English, the situation is much different. For these students, basic interpersonal communicative skills have been acquired in English, not Portuguese. If the students and their parents are interested in bilingualism, then arrangements should be made to develop basic interpersonal communicative skills in Portuguese. This can be promoted by (1) having a relative, such as a grandparent or aunt/uncle, always speak to the students in Portuguese; (2) enrolling the students in a communicative-based Portuguese-as-a-second-language class at school; (3) having the students interact with other students who are native speakers of Portuguese; and (4) providing subject-matter classes in Portuguese to these second-language learners under conditions approximating those of the French Canadian immersion programs (Krashen, 1981).

Whenever two languages are in contact, speakers of the minority language tend to shift within three generations to the majority language. This has been especially evident in the United States. First-generation immigrants are almost always Portuguese dominant; second-generation individuals tend to be bilingual; and third-generation ethnic community members often are monolingual English speakers (Mackey, 1981; Gomes, 1974). The sociocultural arguments for or against language shift are numerous. What does seem to be clear is that students caught up in the process of language shift and assimilation often experience poor scholastic achievement. One way to avoid this is to create a domain in which the minority language is more prestigious than English (Mackey, 1981). This has been accomplished by such diverse groups as Armenians, East Indians, Hasidic Jews, and the Amish, all of whom reserve the domain of religious instruction for the minority language. For other language groups such as Portuguese, this might be accomplished by providing, in the school or community, traditional and contemporary cultural studies in the mother tongue. Clearly, any topic area or context can become a

domain for the minority language as long as it seems logical, reasonable, and natural to use the minority language. In addition, within the selected domain, English and the minority language should not compete for prestige. The domain-specific dominance of the minority language must clearly be evident.

Acquisition of Fluency in English

The focus of instruction in and through Portuguese should be on the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency. In English, at least initially, the focus of instruction should be on basic interpersonal communicative skills. As indicated by Krashen (1981), there is a difference between language learning and language acquisition. Language learning is associated with formal instruction, such as grammar-based ESL, language arts, and reading instruction. Language acquisition environments are associated with both formal and informal instructional situations. Examples of informal acquisition environments include watching television, playing with peers, or living with a native speaker. Examples of formal acquisition environments are communicative-based ESL and sheltered English classes.

To acquire fluency in English, students need substantial exposure to English in acquisition-rich environments. This type of environment can be provided in the home, school, or community. Educators often underestimate the exposure language minority students have to English. Several research studies indicate that, regardless of the school program (submersion, ESL, or bilingual education), most language minority students in the United States acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in English in two or three years (Legarreta-Marcaida, 1981; Cummins, 1981). This is because all environments contain some "comprehensible input." Whether at home, school, or in the community, most students eventually obtain enough comprehensible English input and acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills. Nevertheless, parents and teachers should monitor individual student progress to ensure adequate exposure to English.

At home, children usually speak English with some relatives, especially siblings. Many youngsters sometimes watch children's television programs, such as "Sesame Street," "Electric Company," and cartoons. These are sources of "comprehensible second-language input." If one parent has native-like proficiency in English, this parent might want to serve as an English-speaking model. In these cases, for optimal development of both English and Portuguese, it is probably wise for some family members to maintain consistency as a particular language model and not switch or mix languages frequently. If both parents speak Portuguese, however, and proficient bilingualism is desired, both parents should consider speaking Portuguese in the

home since exposure to English is sufficiently available in many other domains (Cummins, 1981).

At school, children will acquire English communicative skills in (1) communicative-based ESL classes (Terrell, 1981); (2) subject-matter classes delivered under special sheltered English conditions; and (3) interaction with peers who are English native speakers on the playground, in the halls, during assemblies, on field trips, and in regular classes.

Communicative-based ESL, sheltered English, and other natural language acquisition environments generally are insufficient in promoting all of the English language skills needed by language minority students. Once students have developed basic interpersonal communicative skills in English and a normal level of cognitive/academic language proficiency (basic skills learned in and through Portuguese and/or in sheltered English classes), they are ready to benefit from grammar-based ESL and formal reading instruction in English. This instruction should focus on those cognitive/academic skills that are not already learned [for example, language that is not part of the common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 1981)] and that are specific to English. Examples of such skill areas are some decoding, grammar, and spelling skills. Cognitive/academic language development in English is more efficient when school personnel build on already acquired cognitive/academic language skills in Portuguese.

Summary

Historically, parents and educators have considered the acquisition of basic interpersonal communicative skills in English as the only critical need for language minority students. While these skills are very important, the development of cognitive/academic language proficiency seems to be even more critical to school success. One way cognitive/academic language proficiency can be developed is through Portuguese. Opportunities to develop cognitive/academic language skills in Portuguese are not commonly available to students in most communities in California. Therefore, parents and educators must work together to design and implement such activities in the home, school, and community. On the other hand, opportunities to develop basic interpersonal communicative skills in English are naturally present in some language minority homes, most communities, and all schools. Those cognitive/academic language skills not learned in Portuguese can be added easily in English by specially designed instruction at school.

If students are to benefit from their bilingualism, attention to Portuguese language development and English language acquisition is necessary. Without this attention, many Portuguese-speaking chil-

dren will continue to have serious language, academic, and cultural problems at school. The task of educating language minority students is not simple. Nevertheless, recently, creative and committed educators in tandem with concerned parents have designed and implemented, for language minority students, educational programs that have resulted in (1) high levels of English language proficiency; (2) normal cognitive/academic development; (3) positive adjustment to both the minority and majority cultures; and (4) high levels of Portuguese language development. The purpose of this handbook has been to assist school personnel, parents, and community members in achieving similar goals.

Glossary

Additive bilingualism. A process by which individuals develop proficiency in a second language subsequent to or simultaneously with the development of proficiency in the primary language.

Affective filter. A construct developed to refer to the effects of personality, motivation, and other affective variables on second-language (L_2) acquisition. These variables interact with each other and with other factors to raise or lower the affective filter. It is hypothesized that when the filter is "high," the L_2 acquirer is not able to adequately process "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1981).

Basic interpersonal communicative skills. A construct originally developed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly associated with the basic communicative fluency achieved by all normal native speakers of a language. Basic interpersonal communicative skills are not highly correlated with literacy and academic achievement. This notion has been refined in terms of "cognitively undemanding contextualized" language (Cummins, 1981).

Bilingual education program. An organized curriculum that includes (1) L_1 development; (2) L_2 acquisition; and (3) subject-matter development through L_1 and L_2. Bilingual programs are organized so that participating students may attain a form of proficient bilingualism.

Cognitive/academic language proficiency. A construct originally proposed by James Cummins to refer to aspects of language proficiency strongly related to literacy and academic achievement. This notion has been refined in terms of "cognitively demanding decontextualized" language (Cummins, 1981).

Communicative-based English as a second language. A second-language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to communicate messages in the target language. In communicative-based ESL, the focus is on language function and use and not on language form and usage. Examples of communicative-based ESL instructional approaches include "Suggestopedia," natural approach, and community language learning (Terrell, 1981).

Comprehensible second-language input. A construct developed by S. Krashen to describe understandable and meaningful language directed at L_2 acquirers under optimal conditions. Comprehensible L_2 input is characterized as language which the L_2 acquirer already knows (i) plus a range of new language (i + 1), which is made comprehensible in formal school contexts by the use of certain planned strategies. These strategies include but are not limited to (1) focus on communicative content rather than

language forms; (2) frequent use of concrete contextual referents; (3) lack of restrictions on L_1 use by L_2 acquirers, especially in the initial stages; (4) careful grouping practices; (5) minimal overt correction of language forms by teaching staff; and (6) provision of motivational acquisition situations.

Grammar-based English as a second Language. A second-language instructional approach in which the goals, teaching methods and techniques, and assessments of student progress are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to produce grammatically correct utterances in the target language. In grammar-based ESL, the focus is on language form and usage and not on language function and use. Examples of grammar-based ESL instructional approaches include grammar-translation, audiolingualism, and cognitive code (Terrell, 1981).

Immersion program. An organized second-language curriculum for majority students that includes (1) L_1 development; (2) L_2 acquisition; and (3) subject-matter development through L_2. Immersion programs are developed and managed so that participating students may develop a form of proficient bilingualism.

Limited bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain less than native-like proficiency in both L_1 and L_2. Such individuals invariably acquire basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_1 and often demonstrate basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_2 as well.

Luso-. A prefix meaning Portuguese. Luso-American is synonymous with Portuguese-American and is the term most commonly used in the ethnic community. Lusophone refers to Portuguese-speaking or Portuguese speakers. The prefix *Luso-* is derived from the Latin word *Lusitania,* the name given to the province of the Roman Empire that is now modern Portugal.

Monitor. A construct developed to refer to the mechanism by which L_2 learners process, store, and retrieve conscious language rules. Conscious rules are placed in the monitor as a result of language learning. To effectively use the monitor, L_2 users must (1) have sufficient time to retrieve the desired rule; (2) be involved in a task focused on language forms and not on language functions; and (3) have previously learned correctly and stored the rule. These three conditions rarely are present in normal day-to-day conversational contexts (Krashen, 1981).

Partial bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in one language but achieve less than native-like skills in some or all of these skills areas in the other language.

Proficient bilingualism. A level of bilingualism at which individuals attain native-like proficiency in the full range of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in both L_1 and L_2.

Sheltered English classes. Subject-matter class periods delivered in L_2 in which teachers (1) group L_2 acquirers homogeneously; (2) speak in a native speaker-to-nonnative speaker register similar to "motherese" or "foreigner talk"; and (3) provide L_2 acquirers with substantial amounts of "comprehensible second-language input" (Krashen, 1981).

Submersion classes. Subject-matter class periods delivered in L_2 in which teachers (1) mix native speakers with second-language acquirers; (2) speak in a native speaker-to-native speaker register; and (3) provide L_2 acquirers with only minimal amounts of "comprehensible second-language input" (Krashen, 1981).

Submersion program. An organized curriculum designed for native speakers of a language but often used with language minority students. No special instructional activities focus on the needs of language minority students. Submersion programs often are referred to as "sink or swim" models. In such programs language-minority students commonly experience a form of subtractive bilingualism, usually limited bilingualism.

Subtractive bilingualism. A process by which individuals develop less than native-like cognitive/academic language proficiency in L_1 as a result of improper exposure to L_1 and L_2 in school. Some individuals additionally experience loss of basic interpersonal communicative skills in L_1. In such cases L_1 basic interpersonal communicative skills are replaced by L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills.

Transitional bilingual education program. An organized curriculum that includes (1) L_1 development; (2) L_2 acquisition; and (3) subject-matter development through L_1 and L_2. In "early" transitional programs students are exited to English submersion programs solely on the basis of the acquisition of L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills. In "late" transitional programs students are exited on the basis of attainment of native-like levels of both L_2 basic interpersonal communicative skills and L_2 cognitive/academic language proficiency sufficient to sustain academic achievement through successful completion of secondary school.

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Williams, J. *And Yet They Come, Portuguese Immigration from the Azores to the United States.* New York: Center for Migration Studies, 1982.

Suggested Readings

History and Culture

Almeida, C. *Portuguese Immigrants.* San Leandro, Calif.: Supreme Council of UPEC, San Leandro, 1978.

This book was written to commemorate the centennial of the Portuguese Union of the State of California (UPEC). The author narrates the lives of many Portuguese immigrants and the role they played in California's economy.

Almeida, O. T. *A Profile of the Azorean.* Cambridge, Mass.: National Assessment and Dissemination Center, 1980.

This work contains a brief description of the Azoreans and their character.

Bottineau, Y. *Portugal.* New York: The Study Publications, Inc., 1957.

The author divides Portugal into six regions and describes the people and their customs. The book is illustrated with many black and white pictures.

Boxer, R. *Four Centuries of Portuguese Expansion.* Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1969.

This is a succinct study by one of the best known writers on the subject. The author discusses the relationships between the Portuguese on the one side and the East Indians, Africans, and Brazilians on the other.

Brown, W. S. *A Historical Study of the Portuguese in California.* San Francisco: R and R Research Associates, 1944 (masters thesis, University of Southern California).

This study documents the presence of Portuguese immigrants in California from Cabrilho's time to World War II. A good bibliography is included. Available from R and R Research Associates, 4843 Mission St., San Francisco, CA 94112.

De Oliveira Marques, A. H. *History of Portugal.* In two volumes. New York; Columbia University Press, 1972. (Vol. 1: *From Lusitania to Empire;* and Vol. 2: *From Empire to Corporate State.)*

This history of Portugal contains points of view by a distinguished Portuguese historian.

Dos Passos, J. *The Portugal Story: Three Centuries of Exploration and Discovery.* Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1969.

Detailed descriptions of Portuguese discoveries are written by this Portuguese-American author.

Duncan. T. B. *Atlantic Islands: Madeira, the Azores, and the Cape Verdes in Seventeenth Century Commerce and Navigation.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972.

This book is a study of the role of Portugal's Atlantic islands in transatlantic navigation and commerce. Despite the limitations implied by the title, this very readable text is an excellent source of historical information on all three archipelagoes. The book contains a fine bibliography.

Guill, H. *A History of the Azores Islands.* Menlo Park, Calif.: James H. Guill, 1972.

This is a general history of the Azores with an emphasis on the island of Terceira.

Koebel, W. H. *Portugal: Its Land and People.* London: Archibald Constable and Co., Ltd., 1909.

The author describes some of the more salient geographical features of Portugal and some of its neighbors. The book has many illustrations.

Livermore, H. V. *A New History of Portugal.* New York: Cambridge University Press, 1966.

This is considered to be the best single-volume history of Portugal in the English language. It is probably the most frequently cited English language college text on the subject. It is difficult to read, but it is full of information up to the period of the Estado Novo.

Nowell, E. *A History of Portugal.* New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1952.

The author has provided a survey of the history of Portugal.

Nowell, E. *Portugal.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.

This is a survey of the history of Portugal. Major emphasis is placed on contemporary history.

Rogers, M. *Americans of Portuguese Descent: A Lesson in Differentiation.* Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, Inc., 1974.

This monograph on the Portuguese presence in the United States concentrates on the diverse subgroups that constitute this ethnic community. The author's personal views are evident.

Serpa, C. V. *A Gente dos Açores.* Lisbon: Prelo Editora, 1978.

The author discusses briefly the geography and history of the Azores, describes the general characteristics of the people, and then discusses at length Azorean emigration (available in Portuguese only).

Vaz, A. M. *The Portuguese in California.* San Francisco: The Filmer Brothers Press, Taylor and Taylor, 1965.

This anecdotal account of the activities of Portuguese-Americans in California from 1792 to 1965 was commissioned by a Portuguese-American religious organization (Irmandade do Divino Espírito Santo). The author describes Portuguese communities, religious and cultural societies, famous individuals, and communications media.

Williams, J. *And Yet They Come, Portuguese Immigration from the Azores to the United States.* New York: Center for Migration Studies, 1982.

This is a comprehensive account of Azorean immigration. The author describes conditions in the Azores as well as in Portuguese-American communities. It is well documented with a substantial amount of demographic data. The author focuses on the cultural adjustment patterns of Portuguese immigrants.

Education

Bibliography of Instructional Materials for the Teaching of Portuguese. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1976.

This is the most widely known bibliography on the subject in use. The annotations indicate the levels at which the material should be used. It contains five appendixes of resource addresses. Every school should have this basic document.

Macedo P. *Issues in Portuguese Bilingual Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: National Assessment and Dissemination Center for Bilingual/Bicultural Education, 1980.

This is a collection of articles written about Portuguese bilingual education. The quality and relevance to the issue varies significantly. It is good as an introduction to the subject. The articles are limited to the New England experience.

Malta, J. *An Annotated Bibliography of Portuguese Educational Materials Published in the United States.* Oakland, Calif.: Luso-American Education Foundation, 1977.

This bibliography covers the following topics: audiovisual materials, children's books, cookbooks, history and culture, language and literature, magazines, and miscellaneous subjects. A teacher who is sensitive to the specific levels of adaptability to classroom use has provided the annotations.

Ribeiro, J. L. *Portuguese Immigrants and Education.* New Bedford, Mass.: Portuguese-American Federation, 1982.

Originally a doctoral dissertation, this scholarly work contains abundant background information related to important community, immigration, and educational factors among Luso-Americans in New England.

Language

Dias, E., and others. *Portugal Língua e Cultura.* Los Angeles: The Cabrilho Press, 1977.

This is the traditional text used in college programs where European Portuguese is emphasized. It includes lab and writing manuals and tapes. It can be used at the secondary level.

Ellison, F., and F. Gomes de Matos. *Modern Portuguese.* New York: Random House, Inc., 1970.

It is the most widely used text in the United States. The emphasis is on Brazilian Portuguese. It includes tapes. The dialogues, readings, and drills are carefully developed. This text can be used at the secondary level.

Other Topics

Anderson, A., and others. *A Future to Inherit: The Portuguese Communities of Canada.* Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1976.

This is part of a series on the history of Canada's people. This well-written volume deals with the origins of Portuguese Canadian communities, their settlements, their major institutions, their organizations, and their identity in Canada. It contains an excellent bibliography and index.

Cardoza, M. *The Portuguese in America.* Dobbs Ferry, N.Y.: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1976.

Labeled by the compiler as a "Chronology and Fact Book," this book documents the presence of persons of Portuguese background in the New World.

Pap, L. *The Portuguese in the United States: A Bibliography.* Staten Island N.Y.: Center for Migration Studies, 1976.

This comprehensive bibliography covers the Portuguese immigrant from the fifteenth century to the present. This is a valuable resource for any school library.

Pinho, H. *Portugueses na Califórnia.* Lisbon: Editorial Notícias, 1978.

This series of reports was written by a Lisbon journalist for publication in the Portuguese press. The author describes his brief visit to the Portuguese communities of California and attempts to provide a global view of their presence here.

Biographies

Andrade, L. *The Open Door.* New Bedford, Mass.: Reynuldo-DeWalt, 1968.

This is an autobiography of an immigrant to Massachusetts who becomes a teacher. The author describes her struggles to adapt to this country and her efforts to promote the study of Portuguese in southeastern New England.

Gomes, J. *Captain Joe.* New York: Vantage Press, Inc., 1960.

This is the biography of an Azorean boy who joins a whaling vessel out of New Bedford as a cabin boy and eventually becomes a sea captain.

Lewis, A. *Home Is an Island.* New York: Random House, Inc., 1951.

The author has written the biography of a young man from the Azores who finds a new life in the United States.

Oliver, L. *Never Backward.* San Diego: L. Oliver, 1972.

This is the autobiography of an Azorean who becomes prominent in San Diego. It is written in a very personal style and with simple language and great feeling.

Tavares, B. *Portuguese Pioneers in the United States.* Fall River, Mass.: R. E. Smith, 1973.

In a very simple and highly emotive language, the author traces the accomplishments of early Portuguese settlers in southwestern Massachusetts. The chapters are divided by the Portuguese-American parishes in that area.

Appendix A

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of Limited-English-Proficient Students Who Speak Portuguese

On the basis of directives from the California State Department of Education, school districts each year are required to conduct a language census. The purpose of the census is to identify students who are considered to be limited-English proficient (LEP). Once identified, state law requires that LEP students be offered bilingual learning opportunities.

During the 1981-82 school year, more than 7,000 students were reported to have Portuguese as their primary home language. Approximately 2,500 or 35 percent of these students were found to be deficient in English language skills and were classified as LEP.

The following table lists California school districts that reported concentrations of Portuguese-speaking LEP students in the spring of 1982. Only the top 36 districts are listed.

Districts Ranked by Enrollment of LEP Students Who Speak Portuguese—1982*

Name of school district	*Rank by number of LEP (Portuguese) students*	*LEP (Portuguese) enrollment (Spring, 1982)*	*LEP (Portuguese) students as a percentage of state LEP (Portuguese) students*
San Jose Unified	1	255	10.8
ABC Unified	2	210	8.9
Fremont Unified	3	107	4.5
Hayward Unified	4	81	3.4
Santa Clara Unified	5	79	3.4
Chino Unified	6	73	3.1
Cabrillo Unified	7	67	2.8
San Diego City Unified	8	60	2.5
East Side Union High	9	53	2.2
Elk Grove Unified	10	48	2.0
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified	11	43	1.8

*Source: "DATA/BICAL Report No. 82-7C." Sacramento: California State Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education, Spring, 1982.

Name of school district	*Rank by number of LEP (Portuguese) students*	*LEP (Portuguese) enrollment (Spring, 1982)*	*LEP (Portuguese) students as a percentage of state LEP (Portuguese) students*
Los Angeles Unified	12	41	1.7
Hanford Joint Union High	13	40	1.7
Alhambra City High	14	39	1.7
Escalon Unified	15	36	1.5
Alum Rock Union Elementary	16	36	1.5
Newark Unified	17	34	1.4
Livingston Union Elementary	18	34	1.4
Sacramento City Unified	19	33	1.4
Turlock Joint Elementary	20	32	1.4
Hilmar Unified	21	29	1.2
Tracy Elementary	22	28	1.2
San Leandro Unified	23	27	1.1
Richmond Unified	24	27	1.0
Gustine Unified	25	26	1.1
Vallejo City Unified	26	23	1.0
Berryessa Union Elementary	27	21	0.9
Franklin McKinley Elementary	28	18	0.8
Salinas Union High	29	17	0.7
Lodi Unified	30	17	0.7
Chatom Union Elementary	31	17	0.7
Torrance Unified	32	16	0.7
New Haven Unified	33	15	0.6
Oakland Unified	34	14	0.6
Arcata Elementary	35	14	0.6
San Lorenzo Unified	36	13	0.6

Appendix B
Educational Resources

Instructional Materials in the Portuguese Language

Amaro, Fernando. *Toni e Os Seus Amigos.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

This comprehensive beginning reading program is for native speakers of Portuguese. The student's reader (Livro do Aluno) is accompanied by a workbook and a teacher's manual. The books plus a cassette tape of songs are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Amaro, Fernando; Maria M. Hudson; and Benvindo Leitão. *Preparação-Para a Leitura.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

This comprehensive prereading program is for native speakers of Portuguese. The student's reader (Livro do Aluno) is accompanied by a workbook and a teacher's manual. The books and a cassette tape of songs are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Ballard, Wanda S., and others. *Ideias Para o Desenvolvimento do Português Através de Atividades.* Whittier, Calif.: Ballard & Tighe, Inc., 1979.

This IDEA program is a management system that includes techniques and activities for teaching Portuguese in a developmental sequence. The program, intended for students from kindergarten through the sixth grade, can be adapted for use in the seventh and eighth grades.

Branco, António. *Sol Nascente.* Porto, Portugal: Porto Editora, 1977.

This reader for native Portuguese speakers includes poems, plays, stories, legends, and nonfiction by well-known Portuguese writers. The reader and a workbook are designed for the upper elementary level. *Sol Nascente* is distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Canções Populares Portuguesas Infantis. Lisbon: Serviço Básico de Português No Estrangeiro.

This one-hour tape contains a variety of Portuguese music, from folksongs to sophisticated current songs. The tape is distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Correia, Luis de Miranda. *Escala de Comportamentos Para Crianças.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1980.

This behavior scale is designed to assess the social, emotional, physical, and academic behavior of native speakers of Portuguese from kindergarten through the fifth grade. The behavior scale includes a test manual, test cards, and test records. These materials are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Costa, Beatriz M. *Primavera.* Porto, Portugal: Livraria Avis, 1976.

This reader for native speakers of Portuguese may be used after any primer. It includes traditional and popular stories and poems and is accompanied by a workbook. These books are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

D'Alu, Maria José. *Matemática I.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese-Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

This mathematics program is for native speakers of Portuguese in the first grade. The student's book (Livro do Aluno) is accompanied by a teacher's manual. These books are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

D'Alu, Maria José; João P. Botelho; and Luís de Miranda Correia. *Gente No Trabalho.* Cambridge, Mass.: National Assessment and Dissemination Center, 1978.

This multimedia package for kindergarten and grades one through four describes professions and encourages appropriate work choices. Each grade has a teacher's guide and a student's exercise book. Transparencies, cassette tapes, and filmstrips are included.

Diapositivos de Apoio Aos Programas de História e Geografia de Portugal. Lisbon: Institute for Technical Education.

This slide program is a ten-part series about Portugal's society, geography, housing, industries, art, and transportation. It includes 172 color slides. The slides are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Ferro, Salazar. *Estudos Sociais K-1.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

This social studies program is for native speakers of Portuguese in kindergarten and grade one. The students' books are accompanied by a teacher's manual. These books are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Gomes, Alice. *Aprender Sorrindo I e II.* Lisbon: Plátano Editora, 1977.

Book I may be used as a teacher's guide for introducing beginning students to their first encounter with the written word. The book is not illustrated, and its author recommends that students and teachers provide their own visual materials. Book II is a reader with short stories and poems. This program is designed for first and second grades and is distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Hudson, Maria Manuela, and Fernando Amaro. *Sons e Letras.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

This beginning reading program, designed for native speakers of Portuguese, uses a phonetic approach. The authors recommend that it be used simultaneously with *Toni e Os Seus Amigos.* The student's reader (Livro do Aluno) is accompanied by a workbook and a teacher's manual. The books and a cassette tape of songs are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Lopes, Maria Margarida Andrade. *Que Queres Ser? As Aventuras de Cara Alegre e Rita Bonita No Mundo das Profissões.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

The student's book (Livro do Aluno) introduces the student to different professions. This program is designed for native speakers of Portuguese in grades five through eight. The student's book and teacher's manual are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Loureiro, Maria Isabel. *Pintaínho-Iniciação e Aprendizagem de Leitura e Escritura I e II.* Lisbon: Didáctica Editora, 1976.

These two reading readiness and beginning reading books are designed for native speakers of Portuguese and are accompanied by a workbook. The books are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Loureiro, Maria Isabel, and Maria Manuela Boaventura. *Balancé.* Lisbon: Didáctica Editora, 1980.

This reader contains short stories and poems and is designed for native speakers of Portuguese in first or second grade. The reader and a workbook are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Loureiro, Maria Isabel, and Maria Manuela Boaventura. *Salta Pocinhas.* Lisbon: Didáctica Editora, 1978.

This student's reader includes short stories, poems, and a play The reader and two workbooks are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Melo, João de. *Antologia Panorâmica do Conto Açoriano.* Lisbon: Editorial Vega, 1976.

This collection of short stories begins with young, contemporary writers and works backwards to include such writers as Vitorino Nemésio and Teófilo Braga. The book, which is designed for high school students, is distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Meneres, Maria Alberta, and António Torrado. *Livro Aberto.* Lisbon: Plátano Editora, 1976.

This reader includes poems, stories, and plays that may be used after any primer. The student's reader is designed for native speakers of Portuguese and is accompanied by a workbook and a teacher's manual. The books are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Meneses, Fernando de. *Entre Dois Mundos: Vida Quotidiana de Crianças Portuguesas na América.* Cambridge, Mass.: National Assessment and Dissemination Center, 1977.

This book contains 75 short passages dealing with problems encountered by newly arrived Portuguese children in the United States. The student's book, which is accompanied by a teacher's manual, may be used in grades seven through twelve.

Nuzzi, Carmela Magnatta. *Começando* and *Continuando.* Lisbon: Editorial Aster, 1980.

These reading readiness and beginning reading workbooks are for native speakers of Portuguese. They are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Pieres, Maria Torres, and Luísa Carneiro. *Saber Ler.* Porto, Portugal: Livraria Avis, 1979.

This primer, designed for native speakers of Portuguese, is accompanied by a workbook. The books are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Programas do Ensino Primário Elementar. Lisbon: Ministério da Educação e Ciência, Secretaria de Estado da Educação, Direcção Geral do Ensino Básico, 1980.

This is a framework for the instructional program being implemented in Portuguese elementary schools. It includes objectives and some activities for the first four years of school in all of the curriculum areas. This book is distributed by the Ministry of Education, Lisbon, Portugal.

Raposo, Lucíla. *Ciências, I.* Providence, R.I.: National Portuguese Materials Development Center, Brown University, 1981.

This science program is designed for native speakers of Portuguese in first grade. The student's book and a teacher's manual are distributed by the Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Rodrigues, Léonilde; Isabel Vilar; and Natércia Cardeano. *Botão de Rosa.* Porto, Portugal: Porto Editora, 1979.

This beginning reading program includes a reader and two workbooks. Designed for native speakers of Portuguese in the first grade, these materials are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Taveira, M., and Enrico Marques da Silva. *Para Gostar de Ler.* Lisbon: Talus Editora, 1980.

This three-volume anthology was written for children between ages ten and fourteen. Each of the three volumes is a collection of literary selections by famous contemporary Portuguese and Brazilian writers. The books are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Vilar, Isabel, and Léonilde Rodrigues. *Hora de Aprender.* Porto, Portugal: Porto Editora, 1979.

This reader contains short stories, poems, and a play for native speakers of Portuguese. The student's reader, which is accompanied by a workbook, is designed for second grade. Both books are distributed by Luso-Brazilian Books.

Sources of Portuguese Language Materials

ABC Unified School District
Portuguese Resource Center
18415 Cortner Ave.
Artesia, CA 90761
(213) 926-5566

Ballard & Tighe, Inc.
7814 California Ave.
Whittier, CA 90602
(213) 439-3794

Casa Nova Imports
17212 Norwalk Blvd.
Cerritos, CA 90701
(213) 865-0675

Casa Nova Imports
3333 Rosecrans Ave.
Loma Square Shopping
Center No. 239
San Diego, CA 92110
(619) 225-0507

Casa Nova Imports
1638 East Santa Clara St.
San Jose, CA 95116
(408) 926-8020

Casa Nova Imports
1680 East Fourteenth St.
San Leandro, CA 94577
(415) 483-9515

Casa Nova Imports
107 West Main St.
Turlock, CA 95380
(209) 667-9308

Casa Nova Imports
1445 Freedom Blvd.
Watsonville, CA 95076
(408) 722-2152

Discoteca e Livraria Portuguesa
1300 Acushnet Ave.
New Bedford, MA 02746
(617) 997-5271

Editorial Excelsior Corp.
Two North First St.
San Jose, CA 95113
(408) 293-3734

Evaluation, Assessment, and Dissemination Center for Bilingual Education
49 Washington Ave.
Cambridge, MA 02140
(617) 492-0505

Iaconi Book Imports
300 Pennsylvania Ave.
San Francisco, CA 94107
(415) 285-7393

Luso-Brazilian Books
P.O. Box 286
Times Plaza Station
Brooklyn, NY 11217
(212) 624-4000

National Assessment and Dissemination Center
California State University, Los Angeles
5151 State University Dr.
Los Angeles, CA 90032
(213) 224-3676

National Portuguese Materials Development Center
Brown University
Box 0
Providence, RI 02912
(401) 863-2507

National Textbook Co.
8259 Niles Center Rd.
Skokie, IL 60077
(800) 323-4900

Portuguese Bilingual Teacher Training Institutions

Brown University
P.O. Box 0
Providence, RI 02912
(401) 274-9548

California State University, Hayward
25800 Carlos Bee Blvd.
Hayward, CA 94542
(415) 881-3027

Center for Portuguese and Bilingual Studies
Brown University
Box 0
Providence, RI 02912
(401) 863-2507

Rhode Island College
Providence, RI 02908

San Jose State University
Washington Square
San Jose, CA 95192
(415) 469-2141

Southeastern Massachusetts University
North Dartmouth, MA 02747
(617) 997-9321

University of California, Santa Barbara
Department of Spanish and Portuguese
Santa Barbara, CA 93106
(805) 961-2327

University of Hartford
College of Education
200 Bloomfield Ave.
West Hartford, CT 06117
(203) 243-4204

University of Massachusetts
School of Education
Room 207
Amherst, MA 01003
(413) 545-1551

Bilingual Education Service Centers for Portuguese

BABEL, Inc.
255 East Fourteenth St.
Oakland, CA 94606
(415) 451-0511

California State University, Fullerton
800 North State College Blvd.
Fullerton, CA 92634
(714) 773-3994

New England Bilingual Education Service Center
Potter Building
345 Blackstone Blvd.
Providence, RI 02906
(401) 274-9548

San Diego State University
Institute of Cultural Pluralism
5300 Campanile
San Diego, CA 92182

Portuguese Bilingual Programs in the United States (Excluding California)

Massachusetts

Attleboro

Theodore Thibodeau
Curriculum Coordinator
Attleboro Public Schools
Rathbum Willard Dr.
Attleboro, MA 02703
(617) 222-5150

Boston

Raffael DeGruttola
Bilingual Education Prigram
26 Court Street
Boston, MA 02108
(617) 726-6200

Bridgewater

Larry Richardson, Director
Pupil Personnel
Williams Middie School
South St.
Bridgewater MA 02324
(617) 697-6150

Brockton

Benjamin Silva
Title VII, Brockton Public Schools
43 Crescent St.
Brockton, MA 02402
(617) 580-7529

Cambridge

Joseph Fernández
Bilingual Education
159 Thorndike St.
Cambridge, MA 02141
(617) 498-9236

Chicopee

Carolyn Fitzgerald
180 Broadway
Chicopee, MA 01020
(413) 592-6111

Fall River

Richard Pavao
TBE Coordinator
Fall River School Department
128 Hartwell St.
Fall River, MA 02721
(617) 678-4571

Falmouth

Mike Mello
Falmouth Public Schools
Mara Vista Avenue School
Teaticket, MA 02536
(617) 540-2200

Framingham

John Broty
Special Services
454 Water St.
Framingham, MA 01701
(617) 879-6230

Hudson

Joaquim Ferro
TBE Program
Hudson High School
Hudson, MA 01749
(617) 562-5942

Lawrence

Susan McGilvry-Rivet
TBE Program
58 Lawrence St.
Lawrence, MA 01840
(617) 685-9148

Lowell

Ann O'Donnel
Bilingual Program
Lowell High School
Lowell, MA 01852
(617) 454-5431

Ludlow

James E. Tierney
TBE Program
53 Chestnut St.
Ludlow, MA 01056
(413) 583-8372

Milford

Leonard Oliveri
TBE Program
Milford High School
West Mountain St.
Milford, MA 01757
(617) 478-4236

New Bedford

Mário Teixeira, Coordinator,
TBE Program
455 County St.
New Bedford, MA 02740
(617) 997-4511

Norwood

Roderick Smith, Director
Pupil Personnel
Norwood Public Schools
Chapel St.
Norwood, MA 02062
(617) 769-2134

Peabody

John H. Walsh
310 Washington St.
Peabody, MA 01960
(617) 531-1600

Scituate

Victor Correia
TBE Program
Scituate High School
Scituate, MA 02066
(617) 545-3300

Somerville
Donald Baptiste
TBE Program
290 Washington St.
Somerville, MA 02143
(617) 666-5700

Springfield
Yolanda Ulloa, Supervisor,
TBE Program
195 State St.
Springfield, MA 01103
(413) 787-7060

Stoughton
Lydia Mederos
TBE Program
232 Pearl St.
Stoughton, MA 02072
(617) 344-2991

Taunton
Maria Pacheco
Bilingual Education
145 Berkeley St.
Taunton, MA 02780
(617) 824-6684

Connecticut

Bridgeport
Tomás Miranda, Director
Bilingual Education Services
East Side Middle School
Truman Building
700 Palisade Ave.
Bridgeport, CT 06610
(203) 576-7410

Danbury
John Wolfkeil
Assistant Superintendent of Schools
Instruction and Curriculum
Beaver Brook Center
Danbury, CT 06810
(203) 797-4710

Hartford
Edna Negrón Smith
Coordinator of Bilingual Education
249 High St.
Hartford, CT 06103
(203) 566-6038

Naugatuck
Peggy De Leo
Director of Education Grants
380 Church St.
Naugatuck, CT 06770
(203) 729-3141

Waterbury
Dick Wood
Bilingual Education
Croft Building
20 South Elm St.
Waterbury, CT 06702
(203) 574-8040

New Jersey

Elizabeth
Roberta Kanarick
Coordinator of Bilingual Education/ESL
Elizabeth Board of Education
500 North Broad St.
Elizabeth, NJ 07207
(201) 558-3035

Kearny
Nick Testa
Coordinator of Bilingual Education/ESL
Kearny Board of Education
100 Davis Ave.
Kearny, NJ 07032
(201) 997-0500

Long Branch
Carmen Torres
Coordinator of Bilingual Education/ESL
Long Branch Board of Education
469 Church St.
Long Branch, NJ 07740
(201) 229-8019

Newark

Iris A. Martinez-Arroyo
Director, Bilingual Education
Office of Bilingual Education
Board of Education
2 Cedar St.
Newark, NJ 07102
(201) 733-8319

South River

Bernardine Kanaly
Coordinator of Bilingual Education/ESL
South River Board of Education
Montgomery St.
South River, NJ 08882
(201) 254-0246

New York

Deanne Gerstel, Director
Compensatory Education
Mineola Union Free School District
200 Emory Rd.
Mineola, NY 11501
(516) 741-1009

Rhode Island

Bristol

María Lindia
Bristol School Department
Bristol High School
199 Chestnut St.
Bristol, RI 02809
(401) 253-4000

Corliss Park

Joseph Fishgrund
Rhode Island School for the Deaf
Corliss Park
Providence, RI 02908
(401) 277-3525

Cumberland

Charles Santos
Cumberland School Department
Blackstone School
535 Broad St.
Cumberland, RI 02864
(401) 728-4860

East Providence

Shirley Kessler
East Providence School Department
80 Burnside Ave.
East Providence, RI 02915
(401) 437-0750

Pawtucket

Iva da Silva
Pawtucket School Department
Administration Building
Park Place
Pawtucket, RI 02860
(401) 728-2120

Providence

Frank Piccirilli
Providence School Department
480 Charles St.
Providence, RI 02904
(401) 456-9300

Warren

Kenneth Sargent
Warren School Department
Main Street School
Main St.
Warren, RI 02885
(401) 245-7649

West Warwick

Edward Higgins
West Warwick School Department
300 Providence St.
West Warwick, RI 02893
(401) 828-5510

Appendix C
Community Organizations and Media Services

Community Organizations

Associacão Protectora União Madeirense do Estado da Califórnia (APUMEC), 3256 East Fourteenth St., Oakland, CA 94601. Telephone (415) 532-9652.

Founded in 1913, APUMEC has 37 councils with a total of 3,000 active members. This fraternal organization is dedicated to social, cultural, and religious activities for immigrants and their descendants from the Madeira islands.

Irmandade do Divino Espírito Santo (IDES), 22237 Main St., Hayward, CA 94541. Telephone (415) 886-5555.

Founded in 1889, this Portuguese fraternal organization has approximately 11,000 members in 100 councils in California. The IDES is a major sponsor of the famous Holy Ghost festivals held throughout the state. The society also has an active program for young members. The society's members are in the process of establishing a museum.

Luso-American Education Foundation, P.O. Box 1758, Oakland, CA 94604. Telephone (415) 452-4465.

The Luso-American Education Foundation's primary goal is to foster, sponsor, and perpetuate the Portuguese culture. To accomplish this, the foundation sponsors (1) the annual Dia de Camões Celebration; (2) the Concurso Literário Luso-Americano; (3) the State Conference on Portuguese-American Education; and (4) scholarships for the study of Portuguese in universities in the United States and Portugal.

Luso-American Fraternal Federation, 1951 Webster St., Oakland, CA 94612. Telephone (415) 452-4318.

The Luso-American Fraternal Federation has 93 councils and more than 20 youth councils in California. Founded in the late 1800s, the federation has more than 14,700 members and sponsors a wide range of cultural and social activities.

Portuguese Historical and Cultural Society, P.O. Box 161990, Sacramento, CA 95816. Telephone (916) 454-4414.

This organization was founded to promote historical research and library and museum acquisitions. It also sponsors community activities, such as English and Portuguese classes, school presentations, and cultural events. Established in 1979, this society has chapters in Sacramento, Yolo, Placer and Solano counties. Total membership exceeds 400.

União Portuguesa do Estado da Califórnia (UPEC), 1120 East Fourteenth St., San Leandro, CA 94577. Telephone (415) 483-7676.

Founded in 1880, UPEC has 75 subordinate councils and three youth councils. With more than 12,200 members, this fraternal organization sponsors many social and cultural events. The organization also maintains a library and a museum at its headquarters in San Leandro.

Other Luso-American Organizations

Irmandade de Santa Maria Magdalena, Inc.
8277 Chiesa Dr.
Gilroy, CA 95020

Irmandade de Santo António
P.O. Box 253
Tracy, CA 95376

Sociedade Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos
BRAZUSA
548 South Kingsley Dr.
Suite 206
Los Angeles, CA 90020
(213) 738-5167

Sociedade do Espírito Santo (SES)
733 Benton
Santa Clara, CA 95050
(408) 248-3788

Sociedade Portuguesa Raínha Santa Isabel (SPRSI)
3031 Telegraph Ave.
Oakland, CA 94609
(415) 658-4310

União Portuguesa Protectora do Estado da Califórnia (UPPEC)
1229 B St.
Hayward, CA 94541
(415) 538-6828

Portuguese Radio and Television Broadcasting Stations

Radio

Fresno: KAEP 920 AM (½ hour/week)
Hanford: KNGS 620 AM (3 hours/week)
Lemoore: KJOP 1240 AM (1 hour/week)
Long Beach: KLON 88 FM (2 hours/week)
Los Angeles: KMAX 107 FM (1 hour/week)
Los Banos: KLBS 1330 AM (All Portuguese)
Los Gatos: KRVE 95.3 FM (All Portuguese)
Modesto: KTRB 860 AM (7 hours/week)
Petaluma: KTOB 1490 AM (1 hour/week)
Santa Maria: KUHL 1440 AM (1 hour/week)
Stockton: KSTN 107.3 FM (10 hours/week)
Tulare: KCOK 1270 AM (16 hours/week)
Turlock: KCEY 1390 AM (3 hours/week)
Turlock: KBDG 91 FM (1½ hours/week)

Television

Modesto: KLOC-TV, Channel 19 (1½ hours/week)
San Francisco: Channel 26-TV (1½ hours/week)
San Joaquin Valley: Channel 53-TV (1 hour/week)
Santa Rosa: Channel 50-TV (½ hour/month)

Portuguese Radio Programs

Amigos de Portugal
151 Callan Ave.
Suite 300
San Leandro, CA 94577

Aqui é Portugal
João Vidal Cardadeiro
300 Zamora Place
Danville, CA 94526

Ecos do Vale
Amelia Morrison
1228 North Eleventh Ave.
Hanford, CA 93230

Melodias de Portugal
Ana C. Calado
1102 North Divisadero St.
Visalia, CA 93277

Memórias de Portugal e Açores
Luiz Frontella
5786 West McSwain Rd.
Merced, CA 95340

O Nosso Programa
Tony Freitas
12939 Seventh St.
Chino, CA 91710

Portugal dos Meus Amores
José Santos Silveira
1480 Spear Ave.
Arcata, CA 95521

Portugal em Marcha
Isalino N. Santos
8143 North El Dorado
Stockton, CA 95207

Portugal Moderno
Fernando N. Ventura
3123 Andora Dr.
San Jose, CA 95148

Portuguese Echoes
Frank R. Dias
Post Office Box 22233
Sacramento, CA 95822

Programa "Portugal"
Estudios Silva
642 West Victor Ave.
Visalia, CA 93277

Rádio Acores
Vital Marcelino, Director
4321 Blaker Road
Turlock CA 95380

Rádio Club Português
Isilda Azevedo
227 Santa Cruz Ave.
Los Gatos, CA 95030

Recordar é Viver
Manueal A. Martins
733 E. Orange St.
Santa Maria, CA 93454

Saudades da Nossa Terra
Miguel do Canto e Castro
Post Office Box 1242
Los Banos, CA 93635

Sonhos de Portugal
Hirondino Medeiros
1595 East Santa Clara St.
San Jose, CA 95116

Voz da Comunidade
António Morais and
Orlando Rodrigues
4043 Geer Rd.
Hughson, CA 95326

Voz do Vale de São Joaquim
Mimi C. Dias
917 Susan Lee Lane
Modesto, CA 95350

Voz dos Açores
Euclides Alvares
20148 W. Maynard
Hilmar, CA 95324

Others: Aguarela dos Açores, Aliança 80, Amor da Pátria, Arco Iris, A Volta do Mundo, Flores de Portugal, Juventude Portuguesa, Rádio Lusalandia, Saudades da Pátria, and Tic-Tac Português.

Portuguese Language Newspapers

Comunidade (Azorean Times)
António Matos, Director
37 Wall St.
Bristol, RI 02809

Jornal de Fall River
Raymond Canto e Castro,
Director
91 Columbia St.
Fall River, MA 02722

Jornal Português
Alberto Lemos, Editor
1912 Church Lane
San Pablo, CA 94806
(415) 237-0888

Luso-Americano
Portuguese News Weekly
Vasco Jardim, Director
88 Ferry St.
Newark, NJ 07105
California Correspondent:
João Maria Rubens
P.O. Box 3332
San Jose, CA 95116

Portuguese Times
Manuel A. Ferreira, Director
61 West Rodney French Blvd.
New Bedford, MA 02744

The Portuguese Tribune
João P. Brum, President
P.O. Box 3477
San Jose, CA 95156
(408) 251-7300

Voz de Portugal
Lourenço Aguiar, Editor
370 "A" St.
Hayward, CA 94541
(415) 537-9503

Portuguese Language Magazine

Informação (para As Comunidades Portuguesas No Estrangeiro)
Secretaria de Estado da Emigração
Rua do Passadiço #32-1100
Lisbon, Portugal

Portuguese Language Parishes in California

The following parishes provide religious services and, in some cases, parochial schooling in Portuguese:

Diocesan Shrine of Our Lady of Fátima
P.O. Box 97
Laton, CA 93242
(209) 923-4935

Five Wounds Church*
1375 East Santa Clara St.
San Jose, CA 95116

Holy Ghost Church
370 Linden Ave.
Gustine, CA 95322
(209) 854-6692

Igreja de Nossa Senhora da Assunção dos Portugueses*
2602 S. Walnut Rd.
Turlock, CA 95380
(209) 634-2222

Igreja do Sagrado Coração de Jesus
650 Rose
Turlock, CA 95380
(209) 634-8578

Immaculate Heart of Mary
10355 Hanford-Armona Rd.
Hanford, CA 93230
(209) 584-8576

Our Lady Help of Christians (Valley Church)
2401 East Lake Ave.
Watsonville, CA 95076

Our Lady of Good Counsel Parish
2500 Bermuda Ave.
San Leandro, CA 94577
(415) 483-6731

St. Agnes Church
1140 Evergreen St.
San Diego, CA 92106

St. Aloysius Church
125 Pleasant Dr.
Tulare, CA 93274
(209) 686-6296

St. Elizabeth Ann Seton
2713 South Grove Ave.
Ontario, CA 91761
(714) 917-2956

St. Elizabeth Catholic Church*
1817 Twelfth St.
Sacramento, CA 95814
(916) 442-2333

St. Joachim's Church
1121 "O" St.
Newman, CA 95360
(209) 862-3528

St. Joseph's Church
1109 Fifth St.
Los Banos, CA 93635
(209) 826-4246

St. Margaret Mary
12686 Central Ave.
Chino, CA 91710
(714) 627-8466

St. Mel's Catholic Church
4110 Corona Ave.
Norco, CA 91760
(714) 737-7144

*Designated as one of the national Portuguese parishes.

Portuguese Language Libraries and Cultural Centers

Cabrilho Cultural Center
Department of Foreign Languages
California State University,
San Jose
125 South Seventh St.
San Jose, CA 95192

Centro Cultural Cabrilho
Department of Spanish
and Portuguese
University of California,
Los Angeles
Los Angeles, CA 90024
(213) 825-1036

Centro Histórico Português
2919 Upshur
San Diego, CA 92106

J. A. Freitas Library
1120 E. Fourteenth St.
San Leandro, CA 94577
(415) 483-1511

Portuguese Cultural Foundation
3 Armstrong Ave.
Providence, RI 02903

Portuguese Community Language Schools

Hayward

Centro Pastoral Português
St. Joachim's Catholic School
c/o 997 Sueirro St.
Hayward, CA 94541
Antonio Jorge, Director
(415) 887-2912

Newark

Centro Pastoral Português
St. Edward's School
c/o 997 Sueirro St.
Hayward, CA 94541
Antonio Jorge, Director
(415) 887-2912

Palo Alto

Mountain View School
3810 Carlson Circle
Palo Alto, CA 94306
Maria Bernadette Vieira Andrade,
Director
(415) 493-3352

San Diego

Centro Histórico Português
2919 Upshur St.
San Diego, CA 92107
Maria Jose Brantuas, Director
(619) 223-8893

San Leandro

Escola Portuguesa
550 West Estudillo Ave.
San Leandro, CA 94577
Sister Maria Amelia Neves, Director
(415) 357-2088

Santa Clara

Escola Portuguesa Corte-Real
St. Clair's School
c/o 1630 Eberhard St.
Santa Clara, CA 95050
Manuel Duarte, Director
(408) 984-6336

Watsonville

Escola Portuguesa Watsonville
2401 East Lake Ave.
Watsonville, CA 95076
Rev. Manuel Bernardo Soares and
Leonildo da Silva, Codirectors
(408) 722-0662

Manner of articulation	Point of articulation							
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Special	Voicing
Stop	p		t			k		Voiceless
	b		d			g		Voiced
Fricative		f	s		ʃ			Voiceless
		v	z		ʒ			Voiced
Affricate								
Nasal	m			n	nh			Voiced
Liquid				r, rr, l	lh			Voiced
Semi C, V					y	w		Voiced

Figure 1. Phonemic System of Portuguese—Consonants

Manner of articulation	Point of articulation							
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Special	Voicing
Stop	p			t		k		Voiceless
	b			d		g		Voiced
Fricative	hw	f	ɵ	s	ʃ		h	Voiceless
		v	ð	z	ʒ			Voiced
Affricate					ʧ			Voiceless
					ʤ			Voiced
Nasal	m		n			ŋ		Voiced
Liquid				r l				Voiced
Semi C, V	w				y			Voiced

Figure 2. Phonemic System of English—Consonants

Figure 3. Phonemic System of Portuguese—Vowels

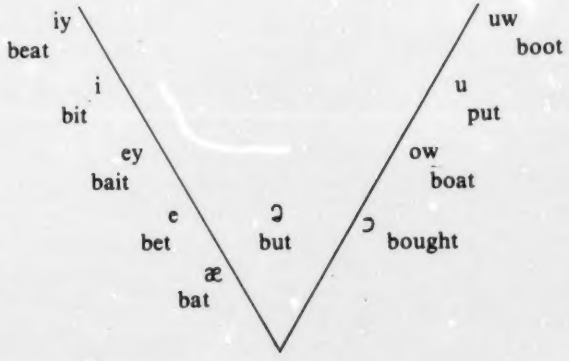

Figure 4. Phonemic System of English—Vowels

Other Publications Available from the Department of Education

A Handbook for Teaching Portuguese-Speaking Students is one of approximately 500 publications that are available from the California State Department of Education. Some of the more recent publications or those most widely used are the following:

American Indian Education Handbook (1982)	$3.50
Basic Principles for the Education of Language-Minority Students: An Overview (1983)	2.00
Bibliography of Instructional Materials for the Teaching of Portuguese (1976)	1.00
Bilingual Program, Policy, and Assessment Issues (1980)	3.25
California Private School Directory	9.00
California Public School Directory	12.50
California School Accounting Manual (1981)	2.50
California's Demonstration Programs in Reading and Mathematics (1980)	2.00
Catalog of Instructional Materials in Bilingual/Bicultural and ESL (1983)	1.85
Curriculum Design for Parenthood Education (1982)	4.00
Discussion Guide for the California School Improvement Program (1978)	1.50*
District Master Plan for School Improvement (1979)	1.50
Education of Gifted and Talented Pupils (1979)	2.50
Establishing School Site Councils: The California School Improvement Program (1977)	1.50*
Foreign Language Framework for California Public Schools (1980)	2.50
Guidelines for Proficiency Tests (1982)	2.00
Guidelines for School-Based Alcohol and Drug Abuse Programs (1981)	1.00
Handbook for Planning an Effective Mathematics Program (1982)	2.00
Handbook for Planning an Effective Reading Program (1983)	1.50
Handbook for Planning an Effective Writing Program (1983)	2.50
History—Social Science Framework for California Public Schools (1981)	2.25
Improving the Human Environment of Schools (1979)	2.50
Mathematics Framework for California Public Schools, with 1980 Addendum (1982)	2.00
Monograph on Staff Development (1980)	1.50
Planning for Multicultural Education as a Part of School Improvement (1979)	1.25
Planning Handbook (1978)	1.50
Putting It Together with Parents (1979)	.85*
Reading Framework for California Public Schools (1980)	1.75
Relationship Between Nutrition and Student Achievement, Behavior, and Health (1980)	4.00
Science Education for the 1980s (1982)	2.00
Science Framework for California Public Schools (1978)	1.65

Orders should be directed to:

California State Department of Education
P.O. Box 271
Sacramento, CA 95802

Remittance or purchase order must accompany order. Purchase orders without checks are accepted only from government agencies in California. Sales tax should be added to all orders from California purchasers.

A complete list of publications available from the Department may be obtained by writing to the address listed above.

*Also available in Spanish at the price indicated.

77326-300 11-83 2,500 LDA 82-128 03-0480 300 10-83 2,500